

THE "SINGLE" LIFESTYLE: AN EXPECTANCY-VALUE ASSESSMENT

BY

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This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, Lillian and Wilmer Scheppler, for believing in me long before I believed in myself.

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The expectancy-value model was used to test a number of hypotheses about the single lifestyle by determining attitudes toward the lifestyle and its major alternative, marriage. A survey based on the model served as the database. Lifestyle (single, married), sex (male, female), and age (23-27, 28-32) were the factors varied to create eight respondent groups.

Based on the literature it was hypothesized that 28- to 32-year-old single males and married females the same age would report the lowest levels of satisfaction with their lifestyles. It was predicted that the highest levels of satisfaction would be reported by 28- to 32-year-old married



males and single females of the same age. It was further hypothesized that the unsatisfied groups would rate the alternative lifestyle more favorably than their own and report a greater behavioral intention to change lifestyles within the next two years. The satisfied groups were expected to rate their own lifestyles more favorably than the alternative and state less behavioral intention to change lifestyles.

The hypotheses were strongly supported by the data with a few interesting exceptions. Though 28- to 32-year-old single men devalued singlehood as expected, they also devalued key characteristics of marriage. The lack of social acceptance accorded singlehood was put forth as an explanation for the overall lack of satisfaction experienced by that group. Also, though single and married females in the 28- to 32-year age group reported the hypothesized satisfaction levels, their stated behavioral intentions were not perfectly predictable from them. Comparison level for alternatives and cost/benefit analysis better accounted for their stated behavioral intentions.

Overall, the expectancy-value model predicted behavioral intention when mediated by attitude/satisfaction. It was argued that as a change in lifestyles is often not feasible, knowledge of satisfaction may be more important.

## CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

A review of the research on singlehood reveals that there has been a notable lack of agreement in the literature on a consistent definition of "single." Some have targeted the never married (cf. Spreitzer & Riley, 1974), others include the divorced, separated, and widowed (cf. Stein, 1975). Libby (1977) points out that even more arbitrary and esoteric definitions have been put forth; for instance, that single is a state of mind.

Most investigators, however, have tried to distinguish between single, never married, unmarried, and unattached. The inconsistencies have arisen because single has been used to label a variety of different samples. Never married refers to individuals who literally have never been legally married. But it does not mean those individuals have necessarily been without relationships. The never married may even include the cohabiting (i.e., living monogamously, but not legally married). The unmarried include both the never married and the formerly married, although most post-marital single people are referred to as widowed or divorced. Unattached is even less well-bounded. That label includes any individual who is without a partner at the



time, married or not. A person who has been separated from his or her spouse for some time, but not divorced, is as unattached as the never married single without a partner.

Clearly, anyone wishing to discuss singlehood must be very precise in defining what they mean, because at present there is no one agreed-upon definition of the phenomenon.

The definition of single as it will be focused on in this study includes elements of the definitions of two authors, Libby and Adams. Libby (1977) considers singlehood to be a stage that a person may move in and out of depending on the choices she or he makes at different points in the life cycle. His definition is one of the few that recognizes the factor of choice.

Adams (1971) defines singlehood in terms of what it is not: not legal marriage or cohabitation, or dependence of any kind on one person. Though Adams doesn't elaborate, a single person's dependence will be on him or herself. Given that little is known about the composition of singles as a group, and recognizing that heterogeneity is probably the one apt descriptor, Adams' definition is the most useful at the present time. This study focused on singles as individuals not involved in any sort of exclusive relationship.

### Empirical Literature Review

Social scientists, especially sociologists, have recently come to recognize that a dearth of research exists about single individuals (Libby, 1977; Duberman, 1974; Spreitzer & Riley, 1974). Published research on the topic appeared to be increasing in frequency in the 1970s, but then dropped off after 1980. Most of that work appeared in sociology journals, some in psychiatric journals, and practically none in psychological journals.

The apparent lack of interest in singles as a group to be studied is difficult to justify given their numbers. There are around 50 million unmarried individuals today in the United States (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980). Most of the single men and women will eventually marry but it is important to recognize that there are still a large number of unmarried adults at any one time. Furthermore, it is predicted that eight to nine percent of young adults today will remain single throughout their lifetimes. This represents a substantial increase from the four to five percent of career singles now 50 years of age or older (Macklin, 1980). In addition, Stein (1975) and Libby (1977) cite several factors which have contributed to the overall number of single people. One factor is the increasing divorce rate. At present, approximately 50% of first marriages end in divorce. Even more remarriages fail (Nye & Berardo, 1973). Thus, more people will probably be single

at some point in their adult lives. Another factor contributing to an increased number of singles is later age for first marriages. The age has increased by almost one year per decade since 1960 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980).

The empirical work on singles, though sparse, has generally fallen into four categories. It includes predisposing attitudes toward marriage, aspects of the social lifestyles of singles, personality characteristics, and the largest category, health issues.

#### Attitudes Toward Marriage

Several studies have examined attitudes toward marriage. Some have used as their populations college students who, it has been assumed, are not yet committed to a lifestyle. Fewer have actually chosen single people to study. Relatively few investigations have examined the relationship between attitudes toward marriage and the actual behavior of choosing an alternative lifestyle.

Stein (cited in Libby & Whitehurst, 1977) surveyed college women and found that three percent of the freshmen women did not expect to marry as opposed to eight percent of the seniors. Forty percent of the senior women reported being unsure of whether or not they should marry, and 39% of the seniors believed that traditional marriage is becoming obsolete.

Yankelovitch (1972) reported similar findings. His survey revealed that the number of students who believe that marriage is becoming obsolete increased from 24% to 34% between 1969 and 1971. In addition, Yankelovitch reported that 32% of the students surveyed did not look forward to marriage, and 29% had doubts about the success of the traditional family.

Stein (1975) noted that these attitudes were reflected in the census data at the time. Especially, the proportion of singles in their early twenties increased by ten percent for women and four percent for men.

More recently Whitehurst (1977) surveyed students' attitudes toward various lifestyles. Though he found evidence for disillusionment with traditional monogamy, he concluded that widespread changes should not be expected in the near future. Specifically, 12% of his sample felt that monogamy was on its way out. Some perceived need to be open to alternatives was gleaned from the finding that less than half of Whitehurst's sample planned on traditional marriages, and almost a fifth reported willingness to try group living arrangements.

A different type of survey was utilized by White and Wells (1973). They wanted to ascertain college students' levels of interest in eight alternative marital and family forms. They found that large percentages of their population expressed "some interest" in each of them. In

particular, 81% expressed interest in "ad hoc marriage" (i.e., cohabitation) and 71% in "contract marriage." White and Wells concluded that their findings reflected considerable disenchantment among college students with traditional marriage.

Strong (1978) replicated the White and Wells study, but she increased the number of alternative lifestyles from eight to 12 and included traditional monogamy in the list. She wished to see how the traditional form fared in relation to the other alternatives. In general, Strong found that males were more open to trying nontraditional forms than females, but that some variation on marriage was still preferred over remaining single, by both sexes. The choice to remain single appeared in the seventh list position for males and the sixth for females. For both men and women, the traditional marriage, egalitarian marriage, long term cohabitation, contract marriage, and childfree marriage, were rated more favorably than singlehood.

Jurich and Jurich (1975) conducted interviews to compare males and females with and without university affiliations. They found that males and single individuals, more than females and married persons, believed that less traditional lifestyles would "allow maximal growth." The variable most associated with the belief that nonmonogamous forms would allow more personal growth was university affiliation.



Finally, Stein (1975, 1976) reported the results of his in-depth interviews with ten women and ten men, all single, but with a variety of backgrounds. Only two of Stein's interviewees had never been married or involved in some type of exclusive relationship. The 20 individuals were alike in that they were not involved in an exclusive relationship at the time, did not plan to marry in the near future, and did not hope for an exclusive partner in the near future.

Stein's interviews revealed that there are both pushes and pulls toward and away from marriage and singlehood. In terms of exchange theory, pushes may be thought of as costs associated with lifestyles. In this context, pushes toward singlehood include feeling trapped by marriage, limitations on mobility and available experience, poor communication with mate, and so on. Pulls toward singlehood (or rewards) include career opportunities, self-sufficiency, freedom to change and experiment, among others.

Stein emphasized that these pulls and pushes combined to make singlehood a positive choice for his interviewees. He noted that this contrasted with the findings of Kuhn (1955). Kuhn's interviews suggested that the failure to marry reflected such personal and social problems as homosexuality, unattractiveness, unwillingness to assume responsibility, emotional fixation on one or both parents, and others. Stein concurred with Bell (1975) who suggested that Kuhn failed to differentiate between factors in not being selected and in not actively selecting.



An obvious problem with Stein's study was his utilization of a very small N. In a survey, the responses of 20 people are weak statistically.

The evidence from these attitudinal surveys, then, suggests at most that the behavioral intention to consider some alternative to marriage is increasing. In addition, it seems that singlehood becomes an option either late in a college career or sometime following graduation.

### Social Lifestyles of Singles

Very little research has been done on the social situation of singlehood, but the available findings do not promote optimism about the process of adjusting socially to a single life. However, the populations used are probably not representative of all singles.

For instance, Fishel and Allon (cited in Libby & Whitehurst, 1977) did a study of singles' bars in New York City, using both participant observation and interviews. The overall finding of the study was that singles' bars were not places where single people gathered to make friends, but were in fact, places where those who frequented them went in hopes of ending their single status. For most of the participants, success was achieved by finding an exclusive partner. Fishel and Allon concluded that the popularity of singles' bars and the responses of their interviewees reflected an overall dissatisfaction and boredom with the single lifestyle.

Starr and Carns (1973) found similar results in a nonrandom availability sample of single individuals living in Chicago. As in Fishel and Allon's study, the singles interviewed by Starr and Carns seemed to socialize in a manner that would increase their chances of coupling. However, for this sample, it was found that singles' bars were not as important an environment for meeting people as were work places.

It is likely that the lifestyles of singlehood are more varied than those reflected in the Fishel and Allon and Starr and Carns studies. They have approached singlehood from one perspective--that of the "swinging singles" stereotype. Thus, the empirical literature on the social lifestyles of singles is, for the present, incomplete. At best, it paints but a small corner of the entire picture.

### Personality Characteristics

The research which has investigated the personality characteristics of singles has varied in its focus. Some studies have related personality variables to adjustment to marriage or an alternative lifestyle. Other studies have sought only to generate descriptive adjectives about singles. An example of the latter type of study was Yoder and Nichols (1980). Their study concluded that single individuals tend to be more liberal than married people.

Of greater interest, because they offer more than an adjective to add to the list of characteristics about singles, are the studies which seem to suggest that singlehood may be a more viable option for women than men. This point will be elaborated further in the next section on health.

In 1972, Bernard reviewed and summarized four studies relating the marital status and happiness of men. She concluded that single men were less happy than their married counterparts.

In a self-concept study of single women, Gigy (1980) utilized questionnaires including an adjective checklist, the "Who Am I?" Twenty Statements Test, measures of morale and values, and questions about demographics. She compared samples of childless, never married women, and married women, most of whom had children. Gigy found no significant difference between the morale of the two groups. Single women scored higher on a measure of obsessive-compulsive type, but "made up" for this by also scoring more highly on assertion and poise adjectives. Finally, there were differences on what the single and married women valued, with single women valuing personal growth and achievement while married women valued relationships. An important issue this raises is, of course, determining which came first--the values or the marital status. It is possible that, for instance, a married woman with children reports

valuing relationships instead of achievement knowing the next decade or two of her life will be spent raising those children. This is in itself an achievement, but not of the sort to which Gigy was referring.

Spreitzer and Riley (1974) carried out a secondary analysis of data collected about applicants for Social Security disability benefits. It is important to note that the variables concerning marital status predated the onset of the applicants' disabilities. In other words, they were single before developing a medical disability. The researchers found that higher intelligence, education, and occupation were associated with singlehood among females. Single males, on the other hand, were more likely to have experienced poor interpersonal relationships with the members of their families of orientation.

The variables of intelligence and education were examined more closely in an earlier study by Carter and Glick (1970). Specifically, they found that females with higher levels of intelligence and at least some college education were the most likely to remain single. But the opposite situation existed for men. The more intelligent and more educated males were the least likely to remain single.

The conclusion to be made from these data is that at the very least it seems that single women are happier than single men. Several authors have stated that singlehood is probably better for women than men (Libby, 1977; Macklin,



1980), but this is evaluative. For example, does a trend for intelligent women to remain single mean that single is better? It may be that the issue is one of choice versus opportunity. Women who pursue post-baccalaureate educations may find a smaller pool of available men who would make suitable husbands. Also, those with post-baccalaureate degrees may have more specialized employment opportunities, restricting their mobility (i.e., they must take a job in a particular city where one is available), thus limiting the possibility of a dual-career marriage. At the same time, traditional sex roles dictating that men will pursue careers and placing a high value on how important and lucrative a man's career is will not prevent more educated men from marrying. There is a larger pool of mobile candidates for marriage to an educated man than of mobile candidates for marriage to an educated woman.

### Health Issues

By far the largest body of empirical work on singles concerns their health, as compared to the health of married persons. This research was greatly inspired by the now famous work of Emile Durkheim (see Srole, Langer, Michael, Opler, & Rennie, 1962) on suicide. Briefly, Durkheim stated that single men were more prone to suicide because they were less socially integrated than females. A number of studies concerning both genders of singles have been conducted since to follow up, and with conflicting results.

In a study of mental health and marital status, Knupfer, Clark, and Room (1966) found single men to be more antisocial and maladjusted than their married counterparts. Single women on the other hand were less depressed, neurotic, passive, and maladjusted than were married women. These results were replicated by Baker (1968).

Depression was investigated by Radloff (1975). She found that single women were less depressed than married or separated women, while single men were more depressed than divorced or separated men. Similarly, Srole et al. (1962) found that older single men were especially vulnerable to despair and depression. These findings mirror those of Spreitzer and Riley, and Carter and Glick, in their implications for single males.

In a study which investigated the notion that marriage may function as a protective barrier against external threat, Pearlin and Johnson (1977) found that given equal life strains, married people fared better than singles. The researchers had hypothesized equal inclination to depression given identical circumstances, regardless of marital status. But to face social and economic hardships and be single was found to be the most psychologically distressing combination.

To confuse the issues further, Verbrugge (1979) examined data from the Health Interview Survey, the Health Examination Survey, and the 1960 and 1970 Censuses of



Population. In these data physical health was as important as mental health. Among the noninstitutional population, singles are healthier than the divorced, the separated, and the widowed. Among the population institutionalized because of ill-health, however, singles are in the majority.

As Verbrugge pointed out it is important to keep in mind the fact that the institutionalized people typically entered institutions at relatively young ages. Thus, they would be selected against in the marriage market. Keeping in mind that early institutionalization and early onset of certain disabilities will decrease the likelihood of a person's ever getting married should caution against making sweeping generalizations about health and marital status.

### Summary

In 1980, Macklin published a review of a decade's worth of empirical work on nontraditional family forms. The section on singlehood was one of the shortest. Ten years of research only permitted her to state with any certainty that long-term singlehood was better for women than for men, and that single women were superior to single men in education, occupation, and some measures of mental health. Again, to say "better" is evaluative. It would be more correct to conclude that the available evidence suggests only that long-term singlehood may be a more viable alternative for women.

Macklin's review also urged investigators to keep the factor of choice in mind when researching singles. She suggested discriminating between voluntary/stable and involuntary/temporary forms of singlehood. Unfortunately, Macklin's call for empirical work in the area has not been heeded.

### Reports and Discourses

Singlehood as an alternative lifestyle has received a lot of popular press, and quite a few books now exist on the subject. In addition, several authors have published essays on aspects of singlehood in social science journals. These reports and discourse have been valuable in raising questions and pointing out researchable issues. They also propose various frameworks and perspectives from which to approach singlehood in a scientific manner. Several of the more useful will be discussed here.

### Historical Perspectives

Schwartz and Wolf (1976) used a discussion of singlehood through history to support their thesis that singles represent a minority group. As far back as Old Testament times, men and women were urged to cleave to one another. Schwartz and Wolf felt this was assimilated most thoroughly and expressed best in the attitudes of the Puritans.

In Colonial America, single status was blatantly devalued. Referred to as "pitiable encumbrances" and "incompetent . . . idiots," not only were single individuals ridiculed, they were mandated against by law. Rather than allowing them to live alone, the Puritans forced single men and women to reside with good families. These laws and attitudes existed both to enforce the strict Puritan religious beliefs and to increase the population. So important was the latter consideration that forms of what Schwartz and Wolf refer to as "social blackmail" were employed to counter the "perverse neglect to marry." These tactics included anything from bachelor's taxes to fines and/or imprisonment.

The major thrust of the article was in Schwartz and Wolf's contention that some 200 years later things were not much better for singles. Their discussions with 73 unmarried individuals revealed discrimination in the areas of promotion and salary for single men. Both sexes reported discrimination in obtaining credit, in tax laws, in finding suitable housing and, especially, in maintaining social interaction. Schwartz and Wolf argued that many singles respond to discrimination by exhibiting "typical minority group reactions." Often they react with hostility or they withdraw--and this only serves to promote the attachment of a pathological label to single status.

Schwartz and Wolf felt the application of the framework of minority status to singlehood would aid the process of changing the "offending larger society." They stressed, however, that data are needed on the attitudes of married adults, of society, and of institutions (e.g., religious or governmental) toward singles.

In actuality, the minority status framework is but one of several viable and perhaps competing perspectives with which singlehood may be explained. Thus, singlehood as a minority status is, itself, a researchable issue.

### Feminist Discourse

Margaret Adams' radical approach to singlehood is largely based in her belief that psychological theory should never have been put forth to define a social situation (Adams, 1976). That is, for too long the failure to marry has been viewed as the result of flaws in an individual's psychological makeup. One of the classic instances of this is the assertion that some people never marry because they are unable to form long-term lasting relationships. This assertion assumes that the ability to have such relationships is a sign of emotional maturity and normal personality (cf. Erikson, 1968; Maslow, 1962). Adams has turned the tables on this and similar lines of thought by proposing that getting married may demonstrate the inability to live independently!

The point is not facetiously made. While non-scientific, Adams' writing is a rich source of thought-provoking ideas that is often theoretically sound. For instance, an example from Goffman (1963) is the phenomenon of a single individual's being subjected to third-degree interrogation along the lines of "What happened, Jill, that you're not married?" Because single status is devalued in our society, Adams feels a stigma such as Goffman described may be attached to it. Thus, singles are considered to have forfeited the right to normal taboos protecting their personal lives.

Adams argues that no matter how the subject is broached, from a psychological standpoint, the cards are stacked against singles. Why? Because when psychology defines a phenomenon as deviant, which statistically singlehood is, then it is considered pathological, which singlehood is not.

Unfortunately, Adams has condemned psychology in general for supposedly aiding and abetting the continuing discriminatory attitudes toward singlehood. In actuality, psychiatry and psychoanalytic theory have played the greatest part in defining singlehood in terms of "deviance and deficiency." Researchers in other areas of psychology, as noted before, have left the topic alone. Instead of imposing psychological theory on singlehood to hurt it, psychologists--particularly social psychologists--should study the processes which potentially make the choice to remain single a difficult one.



Potpourri

Jacoby, in a 1974 New York Times Magazine feature "49 Million Singles Can't Be All Right," addressed a variety of issues relating to the single lifestyle. The article was written from Jacoby's experiences as a single, from informal interviews with other singles, and from information reported in other sources. The major themes concerned adjustment, both social and economic, discrimination, and stereotypes.

First, Jacoby asserted that being single is easier for the upper middle class. Basically for singles, it is difficult to translate the theoretical freedoms afforded by singlehood into reality without money. There is support for this contention in the 1977 Pearlin and Johnson study discussed before. These researchers found that to be single and financially strained was a potentially depressing situation.

Socially, Jacoby felt that singles are aware of the class distinctions that exist in places of entertainment and residence. The single individuals she spoke with agreed that large cities are better environments for singles than are small ones. Along with offering fewer cultural activities and entertainments spots, small cities are dominated by married couples who control socializing and tend to exclude singles.

Though Jacoby mentioned the "lonely loser" stereotype of singlehood, the article focused on the misconceptions of



singlehood created by the "swinging single" stereotype. The men she interviewed reported finding it difficult to secure promotions and pay raises because corporations viewed them as impulsive and unstable. Some of the men even indicated that in job interviews they were asked questions implying that they were homosexual and/or promiscuous. Ironically, many single women in business stated that they were viewed as more stable and committed and so experienced less discrimination.

Obviously, Jacoby's article stated a number of conclusions in need of support from scientific data. In the next section, some of the questions the literature has raised will be formulated and the aims of this investigation will be discussed.

### Aims of the Study and Hypotheses

One conclusion that may be drawn from the research summarized is that individuals who choose to be single, and married people, have different values. The alternative explanation is that of opportunity. Some single people are at a disadvantage in the "marriage market" because some aspect of their personal situation limits their opportunities of finding a suitable mate. It was suggested in the review of the literature that social psychological research might be brought to bear on the issue of lifestyles. One theoretical framework which lends itself

very nicely to the study of population issues is Fishbein's expectancy-value approach (Fishbein, 1967, 1972; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The model, which encompasses beliefs and attitudes toward a given object and a measure of behavioral intention, will be used in this study to determine 1) the differential values and expectancies between singles and marrieds, and 2) what the members of each group believe regarding the other groups' values, characteristics, and attitudes. For example, as noted before, the literature suggests that a lifestyle which maximizes the freedom to be personally independent will be valued more highly by singles than by married individuals. And there is evidence that married people may view singles as valuing a choice of sexual partners. These are issues the expectancy-value model is designed to measure.

Most of the research on attitude-behavior relationships has dealt with attitudes about single objects. This has been the case despite the fact that researchers have suggested the need to include attitudes about alternatives to the object as well (cf., Smetana & Adler, 1979; Severy, 1982). This initiative will involve an investigation of attitudes toward a lifestyle (the attitudes "object") as a choice among alternatives. Considering attitudes toward the alternative to a choice is important. It has been observed that at times people will engage in a behavior for which they do not hold a positive attitude simply because it is

the lesser of two (or more) evils (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). For the purposes of this study it would be meaningless to look at attitudes toward singlehood by singles alone. Why? Clearly because a single individual may be looking for a suitable marriage partner, but still value aspects of the single lifestyle. Without examining that person's attitudes toward marriage we would not know for certain which lifestyle is his or her choice.

Focusing on singlehood as a choice from among alternative lifestyles, using an expectancy-value framework, will require taking into account both social dynamics and individual values. The research on singlehood reviewed here suggests a number of these values.

One example of a social consideration is age. As a person gets older the pool of available candidates for a marriage relationship decreases. The composition of that pool must be considered as well. As age increases, the proportion of available mates who are unsuitable may increase, making it more difficult for a person who would be open to marriage or a long-term relationship to find a mate. Social reactions to single status enter at this point. The social pressure exerted on an individual to get married seems to increase as age increases.

The personal, or individual, factors that lead people to vary in choosing a lifestyle may include, for one, how much they value their own company, privacy, and independence. In

addition to this their values regarding certain aspects of relationships with others are important. These might include dependency, frequency of contact, intensity of contact, sexual intimacy, sexual variety, and the desire to raise children.

Also, the value of work is a consideration. How singles and marrieds differ in the nature of their work and in the constraints careers put on the freedom to move or to pursue long-term relationships is likely to be an issue.

The use of an expectancy-value model in this study will demonstrate, among other things, that there are different levels of singlehood. Singlehood may be a permanent condition caused by preferring one's own company to a long-term relationship with another. It may also be a virtually permanent condition caused by the high value one places on other things. For example, placing great value on a specialized career requiring domicile in a certain area of the country could ultimately make marriage infeasible. Singlehood may be for some, a temporary condition resulting from choices one has made about other aspects of a lifestyle in combination with characteristics of the pool of potential partners. For example, a woman desiring children to be fathered by a professional man only, would be this type of single if there are no such men available.

Using the expectancy-value framework in this investigation will accomplish several important objectives.



First of all, a study of lifestyle choice will expand the focus of expectancy-value theorizing from single object behaviors to multiple object decision making. As mentioned before, researchers have recognized the need to include alternatives to the attitude object in expectancy-value studies. In the area of population psychology, several researchers interested in contraceptive decision making have begun to look at the choice of a birth control method in the context of alternatives (Cohen, Severy, & Ahtola, 1978). Consumer psychologists interested in consumer decision making processes are also utilizing multiple object sets in their studies. This investigation will extend the model to include the fundamental choice of a lifestyle. The framework takes into account an individual's needs, perceptions, attitudes, and experiences--all important variables to examine in order to understand a person's choice to remain single or to marry.

As an example, in the language of expectancy-value theory this study will demonstrate that the strength of the tendency to remain single will depend on (1) the strength of expectancy that remaining single will afford, say, privacy and (2) the value of privacy to the individual. Many different values or characteristics of the lifestyles will be presented, and the attitudes associated with them assessed. The end result will be a measure of behavioral intention. In other words, prediction of the likelihood

that a person will remain single or stay married, should be possible.

In addition to providing a further test and extension of the expectancy-value model, this investigation will involve another current area of interest in social psychology. In recent years, psychologists in social cognition have become interested in determining how people conceptualize the self (Rogers, Kuiper, & Kirker, 1977). This has led to a concurrent interest in how the perceptions of self differ from perception of others (Kuiper & Rogers, 1979).

The present investigation will extend the realm of "other" to include an entire group of people, singles or marrieds, instead of one other individual. It will be of great interest to learn how the members of each group perceive individuals living a different lifestyle from their own. Becoming aware of the discrepancies between what each group believes the other group values, and what the groups actually value, should provide a starting point for better understanding. This is a particularly salient issue for singles who wish to see that status upgraded, as well as the choice to be single recognized as a viable one.

In this investigation a survey based on the expectancy-value model was constructed. Three major factors were assessed--the lifestyle, sex, and age (23 to 27, 28 to 32) of the survey respondents. Based on the research discussed heretofore, it was hypothesized that



a. Single men would report favoring the single lifestyle less than would single women. Single men would report less satisfaction with their lifestyles than married men. Single men in the older age group would be the most dissatisfied group of all. These hypotheses were based on the findings discussed in the subsection on health issues which indicated that single men are generally unhappier than other groups.

b. Single women in the older age group would report more satisfaction with the lifestyle than younger single women, because they are beyond the point at which social pressure to marry exerts as powerful an influence as the knowledge that the pool of suitable, available candidates is small.

c. Married men in the older age group would report the highest levels of satisfaction with their lifestyle. Married women in the older age group would be the most dissatisfied of the married groups.

d. All four groups of singles would view their group as less satisfied than would the married groups.

e. The alternative lifestyle would be rated more highly by individuals in unsatisfied groups. Members of satisfied groups would rate the alternative lifestyle lower than their own lifestyle.

f. The differences between what singles and marrieds valued and what characterized their lifestyles would be fewer than what each group assumed about the other lifestyles' values and characteristics.

g. Given that expectancy-value was used, it was predicted that total self expectancy-value scores would predict attitude toward a respondent's own lifestyle. In other words, self expectancy-value would predict satisfaction. Further, the attitude (or satisfaction) would predict behavioral intention to remain in a respondent's current lifestyle. Specifically, satisfied individuals in both groups would report less likelihood of changing situations than unsatisfied individuals. These related hypotheses constituted a test of expectancy-value theory.

## CHAPTER II METHOD

The present research investigated the values and expectancies of single individuals and married persons. The data base was generated by a survey. This section describes the survey instrument, the survey response categories, the sampling design of the initiative, and the respondent sample.

### The Survey Instrument

The instrument utilized in this investigation was derived from an expectancy-value formulation. A set of 15 parameters relevant to the behavior of choosing a lifestyle provided the basis for the survey. The parameters were derived from the values and attitudes indicated as important in the literature review. To ensure their efficacy, focus group interviews were held with five single, and five married individuals. The interviews confirmed the parameters as appropriate for inclusion in the survey.

The most frequently cited value was 1) social acceptance (Adams, 1976; Gigy, 1980; Jacoby, 1974; Schwartz & Wolf, 1976; Stein, 1975; Strong, 1978). Strong support was also found for 2) personal independence (Adams, 1976; Gigy, 1980;

Jurich & Jurich, 1975; Stein, 1975), 3) financial security (Adams, 1976; Jacoby, 1974; Pearlin & Johnson, 1977; Stein, 1975), 4) career opportunities (Adams, 1976; Gigy, 1980; Jacoby, 1974; Schwartz & Wolf, 1976; Stein, 1975), 5) regular sexual partner (Fishel & Allon, cited in Libby & Whitehurst, 1977; Libby, 1977; Starr & Carns, 1973; Stein, 1975), and 6) choice of sexual partners (Fishel & Allon, cited in Libby & Whitehurst, 1977; Libby, 1977; Starr & Carns, 1973; Stein, 1975). Also cited were 7) long-term commitment (Adams, 1976; Fishel & Allon, cited in Libby & Whitehurst, 1977; Starr & Carns, 1973; Stein, 1975), 8) dependence on another (Adams, 1976; Fishel & Allon, cited in Libby & Whitehurst, 1977; Starr & Carns, 1973; Stein, 1975), 9) parenting children (Schwartz & Wolf, 1976; Stein, 1975), 10) not being bored (Fishel & Allon, cited in Libby & Whitehurst, 1977; Schwartz & Wolf, 1976; Stein, 1975), 11) self-sufficiency, 12) geographical mobility, 13) privacy, 14) close friendships (Adams, 1976; Stein, 1975), and 15) personal growth (Jurich & Jurich, 1975).

Two different protocols were constructed, one designed for single respondents and the other for married respondents (the protocol is presented in Appendix A). The wording for both protocols was gender-free. The respondents rated the values of the 15 parameters, and their expectations that their current lifestyle would lead to, or be characterized by, the parameter being considered. In addition, the

respondents rated the parameters as they believed they existed for the other group. Thus, all respondents rated the list of parameters from two perspectives: their own values and expectations, and the values and expectations of members of the other lifestyle.

The respondents were also directly asked to evaluate their satisfaction with their lifestyles. First, they were asked to indicate their overall evaluation of their lifestyle. They were then asked to evaluate their lifestyle as to how satisfied they believed the rest of their group to be. Finally, the respondents were asked to indicate the likelihood that they would remain in their current lifestyles in the next two years.

The protocols also included a brief questionnaire requesting demographic information. Age and gender of the respondents were treated as two of three major factors (the other being lifestyle) in this investigation. Clearly, though, opportunity is one factor which may influence a person's choice to be single or marry. Opportunity may be limited by the following subset of factors: education level, income level, and race. These factors were included in this initiative for descriptive purposes.



### Response Categories

Several different types of response formats were necessary in this survey. In an expectancy-value formulation respondents indicate, a) their values for a set of characteristics, b) the beliefs they have regarding the extent to which the lifestyles will be associated with a set of characteristics, c) their overall attitude towards the lifestyles, and d) their stated intentions to remain in their current lifestyle.

Values were rated by respondents by selecting one of the following alternatives for each of the 15 parameters: very desirable (+3), desirable (+2), slightly desirable (+1), neither desirable nor undesirable (0), slightly undesirable (-1), undesirable (-2), or very undesirable (-3). Regarding respondents beliefs that certain characteristics were (or were not) associated with a lifestyle, the choices for the parameters were very likely (+3), likely (+2), slightly likely (+1), neither likely nor unlikely (0), slightly unlikely (-1), unlikely (-2), and very unlikely (-3).

The overall evaluations of the lifestyles were rated on a seven-point scale ranging from very satisfactory (1) to very unsatisfactory (7). As for behavioral intention to remain in their current lifestyle, respondents were asked to indicate how likely it was that they would remain single if they were presently single, or stay married if they were presently married. Their responses ranged from very likely (1) to very unlikely (7).

### Sampling Design

A purposive convenience sample was used to obtain respondents for this initiative. This sampling scheme is not a claim for complete generality but is a workable design when totally random sampling is not feasible. In this particular investigation, the formal groups of singles and marrieds contacted yielded very few respondents who fit the study's age and lifestyle constraints. To obtain an adequate number of respondents, a group, organization, or singles' bar was sampled if the majority of its members or patrons were followers of the two lifestyles. The majority of the groups contributing respondents were involved in some way with the University of Florida which produced a sample more educated than would be expected in the general population. Thus, the results obtained in this study were not generalizable to less educated married and single individuals with concomitant income levels. In addition, the sample was composed almost exclusively of Caucasians, thereby limiting the generalizability with regard to race and culture. Finally, the respondents comprising the sample were Gainesville city residents, therefore, the results may not be generalizable to rural populations.

The groups and organizations which provided married respondents were the University of Florida Housing Division (staff), University of Florida Married Student Housing (residents), Baby Gator Research Center for Child

Development (parents), and the University of Florida Intercollegiate Athletics Office (staff and coaches).

Single respondents were obtained from the Civitan Regional Blood Center, Inc. (staff and volunteers), the Alachua County Crisis Center (staff and volunteers), Shands Teaching Hospital and Clinics, Inc. (students), the Alachua County Singles Club (members), the Department of Anthropology (graduate students), Law Women (students), Bennigan's Tavern (patrons), and Danny's Eating and Drinking Establishment (patrons).

When the groups of singles and marrieds were identified, they were approached and asked to participate in this investigation. If they agreed to cooperate, they either provided membership lists of names and addresses or a contact person who agreed to distribute the surveys by hand. Approximately two-thirds of the 600 surveys were personally distributed. The remaining one-third were mailed. The respondents received the survey appropriate for their lifestyle, a cover letter urging them to complete the survey, and a postage-free Business Reply Mail envelope.

Among the married respondents, either the husband or the wife completed the survey, but not both. To ensure that an equal number of husbands and wives completed the survey, the forms clearly indicated which of the couple was to complete it.

### Survey Respondents

This section will describe the response rates of the survey as well as the demographic variables in terms of the percentages of respondents in various categories.

#### Overall Response

A total of 600 surveys were distributed. Half of these were received by singles, the other half by married individuals. Out of the 600 distributed, 203 surveys were returned, yielding an overall response rate of 34%. The response rate for single respondents was 54%--110 out of 203. The remaining 93 surveys were returned by married respondents, yielding a response rate of 46%.

#### Sex and Age of Respondents

The numbers of males and females who responded to the survey were nearly equal. One hundred males and 103 females returned their surveys.

As stated before, the three major factors in this study were lifestyle (single, married), age (23-27, 28-32), and sex (male, female). In a 2 X 2 X 2 format this created eight cells. The total number of respondents per cell and their mean ages may be found in Table 2.1.

The age groups were divided between 27 and 28 due to the recognition that life-cycle changes begin to occur for men and women at this time. The pool of available candidates

TABLE 2.1

Total of Respondents Per Cell and Mean Ages

Age Group	Males		Females	
	Single	Married	Single	Married
23-27	24.9/24	25.4/22	24.4/33	25.5/25
28-32	29.9/30	30.5/24	30.0/23	30.3/22

Mean Age/Respondents Per Cell

for marriage decreases significantly for single people, especially single women, approaching their thirties. Thus, single men and women are expected to make certain decisions about their singlehood at this point (Sheehy, 1976). These issues are considered further in the results and discussion chapters.

#### Race, Income, and Education of Respondents

The survey sample was 96% Caucasian. Of the non-Caucasian respondents, six were Hispanic, one was Black, and one was identified as Other.

Fifteen percent of the sample reported incomes less than \$7,500, 11% reported their incomes at \$7,500 to \$9,999, and 17% reported incomes reported incomes between \$10,000 and \$14,999. Twenty-two percent of the sample reported incomes



between \$15,000 and \$19,999, 16% reported incomes ranging from \$20,000 to \$29,999, and the remaining 15% reported making over \$29,999.

None of the sample had less than a high school education. Eleven percent reported completing three years of undergraduate work. One-third of the sample reported completing a four-year baccalaureate degree. Another 11% reported educations of four or more years of graduate or professional school. Because Gainesville is a university city it is not too surprising that 54% of the sample had either completed or were in the process of completing an undergraduate degree, and 34% were engaged in or had completed graduate or professional school.

### CHAPTER III RESULTS

The analyses to follow deal with data gathered in the survey described in Chapter II, as those were affected by the lifestyle, sex, and age of the respondents. As a result, the major analyses deal with a 2 (single, married) X 2 (male, female) X 2 (23 to 27, 28 to 32) factorial design. These are all between-subjects factors. The overall expectancy-value scores (sum for the self, sum for the other lifestyle) were analyzed as a within-subjects factor.

This chapter will present the results of a series of three-way ANOVAs designed to test the hypotheses discussed in Chapter I. In addition, the results of correlational and discriminant function analyses will be presented as tests of the expectancy-value model as it applies to lifestyle choice.

The first portion of this chapter will present results pertaining to the test of the model. The remainder of the chapter will be devoted to results relevant to each hypothesis regarding singles and marrieds.

### Test of the Expectancy-Value Model as a Predictor of Lifestyle Choice

An assumption of the expectancy-value model is that the overall score obtained (the summation of the  $E \times V$  products), when mediated by attitude, can be used as a predictor of behavioral intention. In this initiative, prediction of the likelihood that respondents would remain single or stay married should be possible given knowledge of their attitudes toward their lifestyles. These attitudes should, in turn, be predictable from the expectancy and value ratings they gave the 15 lifestyle characteristics. To determine the model's success in this endeavor, first, correlations between the overall score and the dependent measures of attitude and behavioral intention will be examined. Finally, descriptive data provided by a discriminant analysis will be presented.

### The Relationship Between Attitude, Behavioral Intention, and Self Expectancy-Value

As hypothesized, total expectancy-value predicted attitude (satisfaction), and attitude predicted behavioral intention. Both correlations were significant,  $r=.46$ ,  $p<.0001$ . The overall correlation between the self expectancy-value scores and the respondents' stated behavioral intentions to remain in their current lifestyles was, however, non-significant,  $R=.09$ ,  $p<.20$ . But expectancy-value theory assumes that behavioral intention

is, in fact, mediated by attitude. A backward stepwise multiple regression in which total self expectancy-value and self satisfaction were regressed on the behavioral intention measure demonstrated that this assumption was operative within this investigation. A highly significant multiple  $r$  of .48 was produced by the regression.

It can be seen that total expectancy-value, when mediated by attitude, predicted behavioral intention better than did total expectancy-value alone. The test of the model was, therefore, successful. In addition to providing substantive information about lifestyle choice, the test provided further support for expectancy-value theory.

### Discriminant Analysis

A discriminant analysis was carried out to determine the extent to which the respondents' ratings of the expectancies and values of the 15 characteristics both for themselves and for the alternative lifestyle led them to accurately report their intention to remain in their current lifestyles. It should be noted that the respondents were not specifically instructed to rate the alternative lifestyle as if they were, in fact, living it. For some people there may be differences between the way they would view themselves in the alternative lifestyle and the way they view those actually living the alternative lifestyle. Nevertheless, an advantage of this was that both the ratings for the self and

for the other lifestyle were taken into account in the analysis at the same time. Thus, if attitudes about certain features of the alternative lifestyle were sufficient to influence the respondents' answers to the question of changing lifestyles, this analysis was sensitive to that possibility.

Prior to performing the discriminant analysis, the "remain" variable was trichotomized to form three separate groups. Individuals who responded with a one or two were classified as respondents highly unlikely to change lifestyles. Respondents who checked either three, four, or five were classified as being neither likely nor unlikely to remain in their current lifestyles. The final group was comprised of respondents who answered with a six or a seven and were classified as very likely to change lifestyles.

Separate discriminant analyses were performed for singles and for marrieds. The numbers of each lifestyle who were initially classified into the three groups are presented in Table 3.1.

Obviously, the majority of respondents in this investigation have little to no reported intention of changing lifestyles. Nevertheless, the purpose of this analysis was to determine if the respondents were correctly classified given their ratings for the expectancies and values of the 15 parameters.



TABLE 3.1  
Initial Classification of Respondents

---

Likelihood of Changing	Lifestyle	
	Single	Married
Unlikely	68	77
Neutral	25	12
Likely	17	4
	<hr/> 110	<hr/> 93

---

In Table 3.2, the number of observations and percents correctly and incorrectly classified for singles are presented.

It can be seen that out of the 110 single respondents, only 15 were misclassified. Of those misclassified singles, 12 reported being highly unlikely to change lifestyles. However, given their expectancy-value ratings they should have, at the very least, been less certain about not changing lifestyles. For 95 single respondents the parameters were excellent predictors/classifiers of their behavioral intention to remain in their current lifestyles.

The 15 parameters predicted for and classified the married respondents perfectly. Not one married respondent in any group was misclassified.

TABLE 3.2

Number of Observations and Percents as Classified After  
Discriminant Analysis on Singles

---

From Initial	Unlikely	Neutral	Likely	Total
Unlikely	56 82.35	10 14.71	2 2.49	68 100.00
Neutral	2 8.00	22 88.00	1 4.00	25 100.00
Likely	0 0.00	0 0.00	17 100.00	17 100.00
Total Percent	58 52.73	32 29.09	20 18.18	110 100.00

---

The issue of lifestyle choice appears to be determined by a combination of attitudes an individual possesses both about his or her lifestyle and the alternative. To the extent that respondents rated the alternative lifestyle as if they were living it, this investigation supports the arguments of those expectancy-value researchers who have urged colleagues to include behavioral alternatives in their studies.

### Reported Self Satisfaction of Respondents

It was hypothesized that single men would report valuing the single lifestyle less favorably than single women, and that single men would report less satisfaction with their lifestyles than married men. Further, a three-way interaction was hypothesized such that single men in the 28- to 32-year age group would be the least satisfied of all groups. The same three-way interaction was expected to reveal that 28- to 32-year-old single women would be the most satisfied of all singles, second only to married men in the 28- to 32-year age group who, it was predicted would report the highest levels of satisfaction of all. It was hypothesized that the married women in the 28- to 32-year age group would be the least satisfied of the married groups.

The dependent variables relevant to these hypotheses were 1) responses to the question "How satisfied are you with your current lifestyle?" and 2) the overall expectancy-value scores for the self. Each of these will be considered in turn.

### Self Satisfaction

For the responses to the question "How satisfied are you with your current lifestyle?" a three-way ANOVA involving the factors lifestyle, sex, and age produced the hypothesized three-way interaction,  $F(1,195) = 15.36$ ,  $p < .0001$ .

The means associated with this interaction are presented in Table 3.3. Higher means represent higher levels of dissatisfaction.

TABLE 3.3

Mean ratings of self satisfaction as a function of sex, age, and lifestyle

---

		Lifestyle	
Sex	Age	Single	Married
Male			
	23-27	3.04 c	2.27
	28-32	4.03ace	1.96a f
Female			
	23-27	2.97 d	2.72
	28-32	2.17bde	3.50b f

---

Means sharing a common subscript differ by  $p < .05$ .

A significant simple two-way interaction of age and lifestyle was explored for each level of sex. Within males the simple two-way age X lifestyle interaction,  $F(1, 195) = 6.25$ ,  $p < .01$ , produced a significant simple simple effect of age for singles,  $F(1, 195) = 7.79$ ,  $p < .01$ , such that older single males were less satisfied than younger single males. For married men the simple simple effect of age was not significant. Within females the simple two-way age X lifestyle interaction,  $F(1, 195) = 9.27$ ,  $p < .005$ , produced a similar significant simple simple effect,  $F(1, 195) = 5.10$ ,

$p < .02$ , such that young single females were less satisfied than older single females. Married women showed a nonsignificant reversal of this tendency.

It can be seen that follow up tests of the age X lifestyle simple interaction revealed support for the hypotheses. The strongest effects were due to the lack of satisfaction older single males feel for their lifestyle relative to the other groups. As predicted, the older age group provided the greatest contrasts in satisfaction. Married men and single women, 28- to 32-years of age, reported satisfaction with their lifestyles. Their counterparts, married women and single men aged 28 to 32, were significantly less satisfied.

#### Expectancy-Value for Self

The three-way ANOVA on the overall expectancy-value score for the self (obtained by multiplying the ratings for the values and expectancies of each of the 15 parameters and then summing those 15 products) produced a significant three-way interaction of lifestyle, sex, and age  $F(1, 195) = 7.69$ ,  $p < .01$ . The means associated with this interaction are presented in Table 3.4. For this multiplicative model, a higher score essentially means that what a respondent values and what characterizes his or her lifestyle is more likely to be the case (or what she or he wishes to avoid is avoided) than a lower score would indicate.



TABLE 3.4

Mean ratings of the total E x V of the lifestyle of the respondent as a function of sex, age, and lifestyle

---

		Lifestyle	
Sex	Age	Single	Married
Male			
	23-27	35.87	52.36
	28-32	44.63a	63.54a d
Female			
	23-27	39.00	57.72 c
	28-32	63.78b	43.50bcd

---

Means sharing a common subscript differ by  $p < .05$ .

A significant simple two-way interaction of age and lifestyle within females,  $F(1,195)=13.76$ ,  $p<.0003$ , produced a significant simple simple effect of age for singles,  $F(1,195)=11.99$ ,  $p<.0004$ , such that young single females had lower scores than older single females. The scores of older and young married females were not significantly different.

A similar analysis revealed no significant age X lifestyle simple interaction for males. As a result, a test was conducted of the simple main effects of age and lifestyle for men, showing no significant effect of age, but a significant tendency for single men to have lower expectancy-value scores than married men.

The breakdown of simple effects in the lifestyle X sex X age interaction for the overall expectancy-value scores

revealed more general support for the hypotheses. The older single females and older married males had the highest overall scores indicating more motivation to remain in their current lifestyles than the other groups. Again, older single men and older married women scored significantly lower than their age cohorts, but not as low as young single males and females. This was due to the expectation these young singles have that they will be married within two years as will be seen shortly when the results of the behavioral intention variable are discussed.

#### The Relationship Between Self Satisfaction and Self Expectancy-Value

Strong positive correlations between the dependent measures provided support for their appropriateness as tests of the hypotheses regarding satisfaction. The overall correlation between the self satisfaction question and the expectancy-value scores for the respondents' own lifestyle was  $r = .46$ ,  $p < .0001$ . A table of overall correlations between the dependent measures may be found in Table 3.5. These correlations are also relevant to the test of expectancy-value theory discussed at the beginning of this chapter.

TABLE 3.5

Overall Correlations Between the Major Dependent Measures

---

	SUMSELF	REMAIN	SELSAT	GRPSAT
SUMSELF	1.00			
REMAIN	.09	1.00		
SELSAT	*.46	*.46	1.00	
GRPSAT	*.32	*.34	*.38	1.00

---

Correlations labeled with \* are significant at  $p < .0001$ .

#### Respondent Perceptions of the Satisfaction of Their Groups

It was hypothesized that respondents in all age by sex groups of singles would perceive singles in general as less satisfied with the single lifestyle than married respondents would report for all married individuals. In other words, regardless of their individual levels of satisfaction it was predicted that singles as a group would view themselves as less satisfied than marrieds as a group.

This hypothesis was tested by analyzing responses to the question "How do you think most single/married people find (singlehood/ marriage)? How satisfactory is singlehood/marriage?".

### Group Satisfaction

Overall, the hypothesis was supported, as the main effect of lifestyle showed singles to view their single peers as less satisfied ( $M=4.02$ ) than married people viewed their married peers ( $M=2.71$ ),  $F(1,195)=64.00$ ,  $p<.0001$ . However, this effect was qualified by a significant three-way interaction involving lifestyle, sex, and age,  $F(1,195)=23.88$ ,  $p<.0001$ . The means associated with this interaction are presented in Table 3.6. Again, higher means represent less satisfaction.

TABLE 3.6

Mean ratings of group satisfaction as a function of sex, age, and lifestyle

---

		Lifestyle	
Sex	Age	Single	Married
Male			
	23-27	3.50 b	2.68
	28-32	5.43abd	2.12a e
Female			
	23-27	3.54	2.64 c
	28-32	3.61 d	3.41 ce

---

Means sharing a common subscript differ by  $p<.05$ .

Tests of simple effects revealed that all three factors contributed to the interaction. In particular, tests involving older single males showed a strong tendency for

them to generalize their lack of satisfaction with singlehood to all singles. However, it can be seen from the means in Table 3.6 that the hypothesis was supported.

A breakdown of the three-way interaction produced a significant simple two-way interaction of sex and age for both lifestyles. Within singles,  $F(1,195)=17.66$ ,  $p<.0001$ , and marrieds,  $F(1,195)=7.65$ . For single males, there was a significant simple simple effect of age, such that projection of dissatisfaction to other singles was more pronounced for older than younger men,  $F(1,195)=37.44$ ,  $p<.0001$ . Older and younger single women did not differ from each other or from young single men in this regard. For married women there was a significant tendency for older women to project less satisfaction of married people than did younger women,  $F(1,195)=5.20$ ,  $p<.04$ , while older and younger married men did not differ from each other or from younger married women in this regard.

Other interesting insights into the significant age X sex X lifestyle interaction were gained by testing for the simple two-way interaction of lifestyle and sex for the older age group,  $F(1,195)=44.29$ ,  $p<.0001$ . A follow up showed a highly significant simple simple effect of lifestyle for males,  $F(1,195)=109.64$ ,  $p<.0001$ . Older single males reported singles as far less satisfied than older married males reported marrieds to be. There was no significant difference between the perceptions of older



single females and older married females. The simple two-way interaction of lifestyle and sex was not significant for the younger age group, and only the hypothesized simple effect of lifestyle was found to be reliable. Younger single people saw other singles as being less satisfied than young marrieds saw other married people to be.

### Perceptions of the Alternative Lifestyle

It was predicted that the overall expectancy-value scores obtained by respondents as they rated the lifestyle alternative to their own would be higher for unsatisfied individuals than satisfied individuals. In other words, a tendency to "romanticize" the alternative, if unsatisfied, was hypothesized. Conversely, highly satisfied respondent groups were hypothesized as rating the alternative lifestyle significantly lower than their own.

One way to address this issue is to take the difference between the overall expectancy-value scores for the self and for the other and analyze this difference in a sex X age X lifestyle ANOVA. The test of the effect of any factor in this analysis is identical to the test of the interaction of that factor with the object of judgment (own lifestyle versus opposite) in a sex X age X lifestyle X object of judgment ANOVA. The object of judgment is treated as a within-subjects factor. It is predicted that conditions leading to ratings of satisfaction with one's own lifestyle

in the earlier analysis will exhibit positive difference scores--ie., these people will have higher total expectancy-value scores for their own lifestyles than for the alternative.

The analysis produced a significant three-way interaction of lifestyle, sex, and age of the respondents,  $F(1,195)=10.76$   $p<.001$ . The means are presented in Table 3.7.

TABLE 3.7

Difference scores for perceptions of self and other

---

		Lifestyle	
Sex	Age	Single	Married
Male			
	23-27	-4.0	-4.5
	28-32	-11.0*	+13.0*
Female			
	23-27	-11.0*	-3.0
	28-32	+21.0*	-13.0

---

Means in cells with \* differ by  $p<.05$ .

According to the hypothesis, the extremes produced by the self satisfaction analysis (older single females and older married males at the satisfied end, and older married females and older single males at the unsatisfied end)

should have been the significant cells in the difference scores analysis. It can be seen that there was indeed support for the hypothesis. Older single males rated the alternative lifestyle significantly higher than their own,  $F(1,195)=6.37$ ,  $p<.02$ . While the difference in means for older married females did not achieve significance, they were still farther apart than were the means for a more satisfied group such as young married males.

At the other end of the satisfaction spectrum, both older single females and older married males rated the alternative lifestyle significantly lower than their own. The cell means for older married males differed at,  $F(1,195)=6.10$ ,  $p<.02$ . The most significant difference of all was found for the older single females in this study,  $F(1,195)=26.39$ ,  $p<.00001$ . It would appear from this that whether the choice to be single resulted from a decision based on the need for privacy or the realization that a suitable marriage had become unlikely, older single females come to value very highly the single lifestyle.

#### Values and Expectancies of Each Lifestyle Characteristic for Self and Other

Each of the 15 parameters was analyzed with a separate ANOVA in four different ways: the value of a characteristic (e.g., social acceptance) for the self, the expectancy of that characteristic for the self, the perceived value of that characteristic for the other, and the perceived expectancy of that characteristic for the other.

Each characteristic will be discussed separately. All the resulting main effects and interactions will be presented for the four self/other analyses as they occurred within a given characteristic. Tables of two-way and three-way interactions for these analyses may be found in Appendix B. Main effect means will be presented in the text.

In most cases, when a three-way interaction occurred for a value or an expectancy, the simple effects test carried out to determine where the significant differences were found, involved the lifestyle factor. In a very few instances, age or sex contributed to interesting differences and so, are discussed accordingly.

It was hypothesized that the differences between what singles and marrieds valued and what characterized their lifestyles would be fewer than what each group assumed the other lifestyle valued and was characterized by.

### Self-sufficiency

The three-way ANOVA on self-sufficiency for the self produced a significant three-way interaction,  $F(1,195)=5.29$ ,  $p<.02$ . Means relevant to this interaction may be found in Table B.1 in Appendix B. A significant simple two-way interaction of age and lifestyle within males,  $F(1,195)=8.84$ ,  $p<.005$ , produced a significant simple simple effect of lifestyle for the older age group,  $F(1,195)=9.44$ ,  $p<.01$ , but no significant simple simple effect for younger

men. Older single men valued self-sufficiency less than did older married men.

In addition, a significant simple effect of age occurred for males within the single lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=17.07$ ,  $p<.001$ , such that older single men reported valuing self-sufficiency far less than did young single men.

There were no significant differences between females on the value of self-sufficiency. That older single men value it so much less may be because they take self-sufficiency for granted.

There were no significant differences between singles and marrieds on their expectation that self-sufficiency would characterize their lifestyles.

A main effect of lifestyle occurred, however, for the rated value of self-sufficiency for the other,  $F(1,195)=37.29$ ,  $p<.0001$ . Married respondents expected singles to value self-sufficiency more than singles expected it of marrieds ( $M's=2.54$ ,  $1.75$  for ratings by marrieds and singles, respectively).

For the expectation that self-sufficiency would characterize the lifestyle of the other, a main effect of lifestyle also occurred,  $F(1,195)=13.50$ ,  $p<.0003$ . Marrieds expected that singles would be more self-sufficient than vice versa ( $M's=2.03$ ,  $1.52$  for ratings by marrieds and singles, respectively). Singles may have assumed that self-sufficiency was less important and less necessary for marrieds because a married person has a spouse to rely on.



### Geographic Mobility

For the value of geographic mobility for the self, a significant main effect of lifestyle occurred,  $F(1,195)=10.38$ ,  $p<.001$ . Singles ( $M=1.65$ ) reported valuing geographic mobility more than did marrieds ( $M=1.07$ ).

A significant three-way interaction occurred for the expectancy that geographic mobility would characterize the respondents' own lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=5.75$ ,  $p<.02$ . The means for this interaction are presented in Table B.2. A significant simple two-way interaction of age and lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=5.58$ ,  $p<.02$ , produced a significant simple effect of lifestyle for young males,  $F(1,195)=7.37$ ,  $p<.01$ . Young married males reported less geographic mobility than did young single males. There were no significant differences between older married and older single males on the likelihood of being geographically mobile.

Females had no significant simple interaction of age and lifestyle, just a significant simple main effect such that single women expected to be more mobile than married women,  $F(1,195)=15.38$ ,  $p<.0001$ .

A significant two-way interaction of age and lifestyle occurred for the value of geographic mobility for the other lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=4.63$ ,  $p<.03$ . The means may be found in Table B.3. When broken down it was revealed that both age groups of singles believed marrieds would value geographic mobility less than marrieds believed it of singles,

$F(1,195)=80.38$ ,  $p<.0001$  for young age group and  $F(1,195)=146.06$ ,  $p<.0001$  for older age group.

For the expectation that geographic mobility would characterize the other lifestyle, a highly significant main effect of lifestyle was produced,  $F(1,195)=148.27$ ,  $p<.0001$ . Singles ( $M=-0.85$ ) expected marrieds to be far less geographically mobile than marrieds ( $M=1.50$ ) expected singles to be. Thus, what the respondents reported for themselves and what the other group perceived, was correct for geographic mobility. Singles, in general, were more likely than marrieds to value and actually experience geographic mobility.

### Privacy

There were no significant differences between single and married respondents on the value of privacy. There was a significant main effect of lifestyle on the expectation that privacy would actually characterize the respondents' own lifestyle, however, this was qualified by a significant three-way interaction of age, sex, and lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=7.72$ ,  $p<.01$ . The means are presented in Table B.4.

A significant simple two-way interaction of age and lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=10.56$ ,  $p<.002$ , occurred for female respondents. Significant simple simple effects of lifestyle occurred at each level of age. The lifestyle effect for young women,  $F(1,195)=4.48$ ,  $p<.04$ , found young married women

experiencing less privacy than young single women. Far more impressive was the huge difference between the privacy afforded older married women relative to older single women,  $F(1,195)=38.83$ ,  $p<.0001$ . Older married women reported the least privacy of any group. It could be that the presence of children in the marriage contributed to this lack of privacy older married women reported experiencing. For males, a significant simple main effect of lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=12.59$ ,  $p<.001$ , revealed that married men reported having less privacy than single men.

Interestingly, a significant main effect of lifestyle occurred for the reported value of privacy for the other lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=87.75$ ,  $p<.0001$ . Singles ( $M=1.19$ ) expected that marrieds would value privacy less than marrieds ( $M=2.53$ ) expected singles would value it. It would appear that singles assumed that if marrieds valued privacy to any great extent they would not have been so likely to marry!

Regarding the expectancy that privacy would actually characterize the other lifestyle, a significant two-way interaction of age and lifestyle occurred,  $F(1,195)=8.89$ ,  $p<.003$ . The means relevant to this interaction are in Table B.5. Again, singles of both age groups expected marrieds to have less privacy. Young singles expected young marrieds to experience less privacy at  $F(1,195)=14.76$ ,  $p<.0001$ , and older singles expected the same for older marrieds at  $F(1,195)=45.18$ ,  $p<.0001$ .

It is apparent that privacy is a highly valued characteristic for both singles and marrieds, but that once married, privacy is more difficult to attain. Further, this was recognized by both groups in this investigation.

### Regular Sexual Partner

The three-way ANCOVA on the value for the self of having a regular sexual partner produced a significant three-way interaction,  $F(1,195)=4.89$ ,  $p<.03$ . A significant simple two-way interaction of age and lifestyle within males,  $F(1,195)=6.43$ ,  $p<.004$ , produced a significant simple simple effect of lifestyle for the older age group,  $F(1,195)=24.68$ ,  $p<.0001$ , but no simple simple main effect for the younger age group. Older single males reported valuing having a regular sexual partner less than did older married males. A test of the simple interaction of age and lifestyle proved insignificant for females.

A simple main effect of lifestyle occurred for females,  $F(1,195)=28.08$ ,  $p<.0001$ , such that single females reported valuing having a regular sexual partner less than did married females.

For the expectation that having a regular sexual partner would actually characterize the respondents' lifestyle, there was a significant main effect of lifestyle quite in line with its value,  $F(1,195)=156.15$ ,  $p<.0001$ . Married respondents ( $M=2.81$ ) reported having a regular sexual partner to a much greater extent than did singles ( $M=0.28$ ).

A significant three-way interaction occurred for the value of having a regular sexual partner for the other lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=6.42$ ,  $p<.01$ . The means may be found in Table B.7. For females, a significant simple main effect of lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=43.40$ ,  $p<.0001$ , revealed that single females reported that married females would value a regular sexual partner more than vice versa.

For males, a significant simple two-way interaction of age and lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=11.72$ ,  $p<.002$ , produced several interesting simple simple effects. First, simple simple effects of lifestyle occurred at both age groups. Young single males reported that marrieds would value a regular sexual partner more,  $F(1,195)=60.45$ ,  $p<.0001$  and  $F(1,195)=11.20$ ,  $p<.0001$ .

There was also a striking difference between the degree to which married men believed singles would not value having a regular sexual partner. The simple two-way interaction of age and lifestyle produced a significant simple simple effect of age for married males,  $F(1,195)=24.85$ ,  $p<.001$ . Young married males believed singles would value having a regular sexual partner far less than did older married males.

Finally, a significant three-way interaction was produced for the expectancy for the other lifestyle of having a regular partner,  $F(1,195)=6.40$ ,  $p<.01$ . The means relevant to this interaction are presented in Table E.8. Tests of



simple effects produced significant simple main effects of lifestyle. The simple main effect of lifestyle for males,  $F(1,195)=107.53$ ,  $p<.0001$ , found single males expecting married males to have regular sexual partners more than married males expected that for single males. The same simple main effect was observed for females,  $F(1,195)=129.37$ ,  $p<.0001$ , such that single women expected married women to have regular sexual partners more than vice versa.

### Career Opportunities

A significant two-way interaction of sex and lifestyle was produced for the value of career opportunities for the respondents' own lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=6.54$ ,  $p<.01$ . The means may be found in Table B.9. This interaction was due to the great value placed on career opportunities by single females. Single females valued career opportunities significantly more than did married women,  $F(1,195)=8.87$ ,  $p<.001$ , and even more than single males,  $F(1,195)=9.48$ ,  $p<.002$ . Single females may especially value career opportunities because more doors are open to women now than ever before and single women are in a better position to take advantage of them than are married women. Males don't devalue career opportunities, as can be seen by the mean ratings ( $M$ 's=2.28, 2.38 for single males and married males, respectively), but the value of career opportunities is certainly less salient.

For the expectancy that career opportunities would characterize the lifestyle, a significant three-way interaction,  $F(1,195)=6.06$ ,  $p<.01$ , produced two interesting significant simple main effects (see Table E.10 for the relevant means). First, a simple main effect of lifestyle for females,  $F(1,195)=16.42$ ,  $p<.0005$ , revealed that married women expected to be able to take advantage of career opportunities less than did single women. In addition, married females expected less in the way of career opportunities than did married males as expressed in a significant main effect of sex within lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=16.67$ ,  $p<.0003$ .

A significant main effect of lifestyle occurred for the value of career opportunities for the other lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=37.14$ ,  $p<.0001$ . Marrieds ( $M=2.57$ ) expected that singles would value career opportunities more than singles ( $M=1.85$ ) expected it for marrieds. It may be that married respondents believe singles value careers instead of relationships and that is why they are not married.

For the expectation that career opportunities would actually characterize the alternative lifestyle, a significant two-way interaction of age and lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=4.28$ ,  $p<.04$ , found singles of both age groups expecting that career opportunities would characterize marriage less than vice versa  $F(1,195)=14.76$ ,  $p<.0001$  and  $F(1,195)=45.18$ ,  $p<.0001$  for young and older, respectively. The means relevant to this interaction are in Table E.11.

### Financial Security

There were no significant differences between singles and marrieds on the value of financial security. Not surprisingly, neither group devalued that particular lifestyle characteristic. The lack of a difference was due to the high value both groups placed on being financially secure.

The expectation of being financially secure proved to be a different matter. The three-way ANOVA produced a significant two-way interaction of age and lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=14.24$ ,  $p<.0002$ . The means are located in Table B.12. This interaction was due to the extremely low likelihood young singles gave themselves of being financially secure. Young singles reported less financial security than did older singles,  $F(1,195)=16.06$ ,  $p<.0002$ . In addition, they also reported a lower expectancy of being financially secure than did young marrieds,  $F(1,195)=12.93$ ,  $p<.001$ .

For the value of financial security as rated by groups for the alternative lifestyle, a main effect of lifestyle occurred,  $F(1,195)=9.10$ ,  $p<.003$ . Married respondents ( $M=2.61$ ) expected singles would value financial security significantly less than singles ( $M=2.84$ ) believed that of marrieds. Along with reporting that singles valued financial security less, marrieds also reported that singles were significantly less likely to actually be financially

secure than vice versa,  $F(1,195)=11.45$ ,  $p<.001$ . The means were 1.12 and 1.65 for ratings by marrieds and singles, respectively.

### Personal Growth

A significant three-way interaction was produced on the value of personal growth to the respondents,  $F(1,195)=15.57$ ,  $p<.0001$ . The means may be found in Table B.13. The low regard of personal growth held by older single males was responsible for the interaction. A significant simple two-way interaction of lifestyle and age for males,  $F(1,195)=31.01$ ,  $p<.0001$ , contained two revealing simple effects. The first was a simple effect of lifestyle within older males,  $F(1,195)=41.12$ ,  $p<.0001$ , which demonstrated that older single men valued personal growth much less than did older married men. Young single men and young married men did not differ from each other or from older married men in this respect. This simple interaction was nonsignificant for women.

A significant main effect of lifestyle occurred for the rated value of personal growth to members of the alternative lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=11.84$ ,  $p<.001$ . Singles ( $M=1.78$ ) believed that marrieds would value personal growth less than marrieds ( $M=2.24$ ) believed that of singles.

Finally, for the ratings of the expectancy that personal growth would characterize the other lifestyle, a significant

two-way interaction of sex and lifestyle was produced,  $F(1,195)=6.28$ ,  $p<.01$ . The relevant means are presented in Table B.14. This interaction was due to the high rating given by married females for the expectation that singles would experience personal growth,  $F(1,195)=13.67$ ,  $p<.0002$ . Married women also believed that singles would be more likely to achieve personal growth than did married men,  $F(1,195)=12.83$ ,  $p=.001$ . As discussed before, older married females in this study reported rather low levels of satisfaction. It may be the case that their high rating for the personal growth of singles is a reflection of the lack of personal growth they may sometimes experience.

### Long-Term Relationships

The three-way ANOVA on the value of long-term relationships for the respondents' own lifestyle produced a significant two-way interaction of age and lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=7.30$ ,  $p<.01$ . The means may be found in Table B.15. This was primarily due, of course, to the high value placed on long-term relationships by marrieds of both age groups in comparison to singles,  $F(1,195)=15.55$ ,  $p<.0001$  and  $F(1,195)=54.96$ ,  $p<.0001$ , for young and older, respectively. In addition, young singles reported valuing long-term relationships significantly more than did older singles,  $F(1,195)=17.97$ ,  $p<.001$ .



A main effect of lifestyle occurred for the expectancy of engaging in a long-term relationship,  $F(1,195)=181.02$ ,  $p<.0001$ , such that marrieds ( $M=2.62$ ) experienced long-term relationships more than did singles ( $M=-0.12$ ).

For the value of long-term relationships as rated for the alternative lifestyle, a significant three-way interaction was produced,  $F(1,195)=4.98$ ,  $p<.03$ . The relevant means are located in Table B.16. A test of the simple interaction of age and lifestyle for females proved insignificant, but there was a significant simple main effect of lifestyle for females,  $F(1,195)=125.77$ ,  $p<.0001$ , such that single females reported that marrieds would value long-term relationships far more than married women reported that for singles.

A significant simple two-way interaction of age and lifestyle at the level of males,  $F(1,195)=5.87$ ,  $p<.02$ , produced simple simple effects of lifestyle at both age groups. Both young and older single males reported that marrieds would value long-term relationships more than vice versa,  $F(1,195)=93.60$ ,  $p<.0001$  and  $F(1,195)=46.84$ ,  $p<.0001$ .

The rated expectancy that the alternative lifestyle would actually be characterized by long-term relationships produced an overwhelmingly significant main effect of lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=221.66$ ,  $p<.0001$ . Marrieds ( $M=-0.45$ ) reported that singles were significantly less likely to engage in long-term relationships than singles ( $M=2.21$ ) reported for marrieds.

### Close Friendships

The low value older single males placed on having close friendships was responsible for a significant three-way interaction,  $F(1,195)=3.76$ ,  $p<.05$ . The means are in Table B.17. For males, a significant simple two-way interaction of age and lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=6.48$ ,  $p<.03$ , produced a simple simple effect of age such that older single men valued close friendships less than did young single men,  $F(1,195)=11.82$ ,  $p<.003$ . The simple simple effect was not significant for older and younger women. In addition, the simple two-way interaction of age and lifestyle for marrieds was nonsignificant. There were no significant differences between the lifestyles for the expectancy of having close friendships. The three-way ANOVA produced a significant main effect of lifestyle for the reported value of close friendships to the alternative lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=21.91$ ,  $p<.0001$ . Singles ( $M=1.99$ ) believed that marrieds would value close friendships less than marrieds ( $M=2.54$ ) believed that of singles. Presumably, singles feel that a married individual's spouse takes care of their needs to the extent that they don't need close friendships as much. This may well be the case given that singles, particularly single females, also expect marrieds to have fewer close friendships.

This was demonstrated in a significant two-way interaction of sex and lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=11.40$ ,  $p<.001$ .

The means are presented in Table B.18. Single males believed that marriage would be characterized by close friendships more than did single females,  $F(1,195)=9.85$ ,  $p<.01$ . Married males and females did not differ significantly in this regard.

#### Dependence on Another Person

A significant two-way interaction of age and lifestyle occurred for the value of being dependent on another individual,  $F(1,195)=7.12$ ,  $p<.01$ . The relevant means are presented in Table E.19. This interaction was due to the low value placed on dependence by older singles. Older singles valued dependence on another less than did older marrieds,  $F(1,195)=7.72$ ,  $p<.003$ , and even less than did young singles,  $F(1,195)=12.63$ ,  $p<.001$ . It is interesting to note that while not significantly so, young singles valued being dependent on another slightly more than did both groups of marrieds!

A significant two-way interaction of age and lifestyle was also produced for the expectancy of being dependent on another person,  $F(1,195)=17.30$ ,  $p<.0001$ . The means may be found in Table B.20. Both age groups of singles reported actually being dependent on another less than did both groups of marrieds, but the older singles even less than young singles. The young age group only differed at  $F(1,195)=5.45$ ,  $p<.03$ , while the older singles and older

marrieds differed at  $F(1,195)=69.19$ ,  $p<.0001$ . Obviously, the difference between young singles and older singles was also significant,  $F(1,195)=25.38$ ,  $p<.0001$ . That the young singles reported a higher expectancy for dependence than the older singles is an indication that they are probably expecting to marry. This was borne out in the behavioral intention question which will be discussed in the next section.

There was no significant difference between the lifestyles in their perceptions of the value of dependence for the alternative. The means were not particularly high, thus, it would appear that most respondents assumed that being dependent on another is not a valued commodity.

There was, however, a highly significant main effect of lifestyle for the expectancy that the alternative lifestyle would be dependent on another person,  $F(1,195)=274.53$ ,  $p<.0001$ . Singles ( $M=2.01$ ) expected marrieds to be dependent far more than marrieds ( $M=-0.98$ ) expected singles to be dependent.

### Choice of Sexual Partners

For the value of having a choice of sexual partners, the three-way ANOVA produced a significant two-way interaction of age and lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=20.65$ ,  $p<.0001$ . The relevant means are presented in Table B.21. Both young singles and young marrieds valued a choice of sexual partners less than

older singles and older marrieds. The older and young singles differed at  $F(1,195)=7.41$ ,  $p<.004$ , and the older and young marrieds differed at  $F(1,195)=11.75$ ,  $p<.002$ . The largest difference in this interaction was between young singles and young marrieds,  $F(1,195)=36.39$ ,  $p<.0001$ , such that young marrieds valued a choice of sexual partners much less than did young singles.

Despite all these differences it should be noted that the means were not particularly high. The group that reported valuing a choice most was older singles, but the mean was only  $-0.01$ . It would seem that the opportunity to be promiscuous was not an important factor determining the continuing status of the older singles in this study. This was supported by a significant main effect of lifestyle which occurred for the expectancy of having a choice of sexual partners,  $F(1,195)=30.58$ ,  $p<.0001$ . Singles ( $M=0.06$ ) were more likely to report having a choice of sexual partners than were marrieds ( $M=-1.41$ ), but the expectancy was still not terribly high.

Having a choice of sexual partners proved to be an area of misunderstanding between the lifestyles, however. For the value of that characteristic as rated for the alternative, a main effect of lifestyle occurred,  $F(1,195)=234.12$ ,  $p<.0001$ , such that marrieds ( $M=1.76$ ) assumed it likely that singles would value a choice far more than singles ( $M=-1.40$ ) assumed that of marrieds. The same



sort of highly significant main effect occurred for the expectancy that the alternative lifestyle would be characterized by a choice of sexual partners,  $F(1,195)=224.92$ ,  $p<.0001$ . In addition to believing that singles were likely to value a choice of sexual partners, marrieds respondents ( $M=1.33$ ) expected singles to actually have a choice. Singles ( $M=-1.56$ ) did not expect marrieds to have a choice.

From the review of the literature, it will be recalled that one of the major difficulties faced by singles had to do with their social lives. Jacoby (1974) reported that where marrieds control the social network, singles are often excluded.

### Social Acceptance

There was no significant difference between singles and marrieds on the value of social acceptance. The expectation of being socially accepted proved to be an entirely different matter. A significant main effect of lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=35.94$ ,  $p<.0001$ , revealed that singles ( $M=1.07$ ) reported being less socially accepted than did marrieds ( $M=2.12$ ).

A significant main effect of lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=30.17$ ,  $p<.0001$ , demonstrated that marrieds ( $M=1.46$ ) expected that singles would value social acceptance less than singles ( $M=2.19$ ) expected it to be valued by marrieds. For the

expectation that the alternative lifestyle would actually be socially accepted, the three-way ANCOVA produced a significant three-way interaction,  $F(1,195)=4.78$ ,  $p<.03$ . The means may be found in Table B.22. For males, a test of the simple age X lifestyle interaction was nonsignificant, but there was a significant simple main effect of lifestyle occurred for males,  $F(1,195)=54.46$ ,  $p<.0001$ , such that single males expected marrieds to be more socially accepted than vice versa. For females, a significant simple two-way interaction of age and lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=6.74$ ,  $p<.004$ , produced a significant simple simple effect of lifestyle for the older age group,  $F(1,195)=26.88$ ,  $p<.0001$ , but not the younger age group. Older single women expected marrieds to be more socially accepted than older married women expected it for singles. These findings, along with the findings regarding group satisfaction, indicate that singles and marrieds alike perceive singlehood as a less socially accepted lifestyle.

#### Not Being Bored

On the value of not being bored, a main effect of lifestyle just reached significance,  $F(1,195)=3.83$ ,  $p<.05$ . Singles ( $M=2.39$ ) valued it more than did marrieds ( $M=2.17$ ). Single and married respondents did not differ significantly on the expectation that they would actually not be bored in their lifestyles.

The ratings for the other of the value of not being bored produced a significant main effect of lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=25.77$ ,  $p<.0001$ . Singles ( $M=1.68$ ) thought the value of not being bored would not be as important to marrieds as marrieds ( $M=2.36$ ) thought it would be to singles. Singles ( $M=0.42$ ) also expected marrieds to be bored more than marrieds ( $M=1.49$ ) expected singles to be bored. This was demonstrated in a significant main effect of lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=34.94$ ,  $p<.0001$ .

#### Personal Independence

For the value of personal independence for the respondents' own lifestyle a significant main effect of lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=7.84$ ,  $p<.01$ , revealed that singles ( $M=2.03$ ) valued personal independence more than did marrieds ( $M=1.62$ ).

A significant three-way interaction was produced for the expectancy that personal independence would characterize the respondents' lifestyles,  $F(1,195)=14.71$ ,  $p<.002$ . The means for this interaction are presented in Table B.23. For males, there was no significant simple interaction of age and lifestyle, but there was a significant simple main effect of lifestyle for males,  $F(1,195)=18.48$ ,  $p<.0001$ , such that married males expected to be personally independent less than did single males.

A significant simple two-way interaction of age and lifestyle at the level of females,  $F(1,195)=16.47$ ,  $p<.0001$ , produced two interesting simple simple effects. The first, a significant simple simple effect of lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=39.72$ ,  $p<.0001$ , revealed that older married women expected to be personally independent less than did older single women. Young women of both lifestyles did not significantly differ, nor did they differ for older married women.

Ratings of the value of personal independence for the alternative lifestyle produced a significant main effect of lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=218.68$ ,  $p<.0001$ , such that singles ( $M=0.36$ ) did not believe that marrieds would value personal independence to a great extent. Marrieds ( $M=2.61$ ) assumed that singles would value it a great deal. A similar significant main effect of lifestyle also occurred for the expectation that personal independence would characterize the other lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=259.50$ ,  $p<.0001$ . Married respondents ( $M=1.89$ ) expected singles to be more personally independent than singles ( $M=-1.04$ ) expected that of marrieds.

### Parenting Children

Respondents' ratings for the value of having children produced a significant two-way interaction of age and lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=10.59$ ,  $p<.001$ . The relevant means are

presented in Table B.24. The low rating given by older singles was responsible for the interaction. Older singles valued parenting children much less than did older marrieds,  $F(1,195)=27.33$ ,  $p<.0001$ , and also significantly less than young singles,  $F(1,195)=13.18$ ,  $p<.001$ .

Not surprisingly, marrieds ( $M=2.54$ ) were more likely to report that they expected to parent more than did singles ( $M=-1.25$ ). A very striking significant main effect of lifestyle occurred for ratings of the value for the alternative of having children,  $F(1,195)=337.57$ ,  $p<.0001$ . Even though "single" includes a large number of individuals who intend to marry, when married people encounter the word they seem to assume that it characterizes only those singles who are to them, "bachelors" and "spinsters." For the expectation that the alternative lifestyle would actually be characterized by parenting children, a significant main effect of lifestyle,  $F(1,195)=456.16$ ,  $p<.0001$ , revealed that marrieds ( $M=-1.06$ ) did not expect singles to have children as much as singles ( $M=2.28$ ) expected marrieds would. If anything, singles have a rather accurate perception of the instance of childbearing in marriage.



### The Intention of Respondents to Remain in Their Current Lifestyles

It was hypothesized that satisfied individuals in both lifestyle groups would report less likelihood of changing situations within a period of two years than would unsatisfied individuals. In other words, it was predicted that members of unsatisfied groups would report a greater intention of changing lifestyles. Thus, the results of the self satisfaction analysis indicated that older single men and older married women would be more likely to report an intention to change lifestyles, and older married men and older single women would report little intention of altering their lifestyle statuses.

The dependent measures used to test this hypothesis were responses to the statement, "It is also important to ask you how likely you think it is that you will remain in your current lifestyle in the next 2 years," as well as correlations between the behavioral intention variable and the overall expectancy-value scores for the self.

For the responses to the behavioral intention statement, a three-way ANOVA involving the factors lifestyle, sex, and age produced a significant three-way interaction,  $F(1,195)=7.52$ ,  $p<.01$ . The means associated with this interaction are presented in Table 3.8. Higher means represent a greater reported desire to change lifestyles.

A significant simple two-way interaction of age and lifestyle for females,  $F(1,195)=6.12$ ,  $p<.02$ , produced a

TABLE 3.8

Mean ratings of the expressed intent to remain in the current lifestyle as a function of sex, age, and lifestyle

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		Lifestyle	
Sex	Age	Single	Married
Male			
	23-27	2.25	1.45
	28-32	3.40a c	1.62a
Female			
	23-27	3.03 b	1.64
	28-32	1.91 bc	2.23

---

Means sharing a common subscript differ by  $p < .05$ .

significant simple simple effect of age for single females,  $F(1,195)=5.68$ ,  $p < .04$ , such that young single females reported a greater likelihood of marrying than did older single females. The simple simple effect of age was nonsignificant for married females.

The age X lifestyle interaction was not significant for males. There was, however, a significant simple main effect of lifestyle such that single men reported a greater likelihood of changing lifestyles than did married men,  $F(1,195)=13.68$ ,  $p < .0002$ .

The hypothesis that either very satisfied or very unsatisfied individuals would report the least or most intention to change lifestyles was, for the most part, supported. Older single males and older married males were

the least and most satisfied groups, respectively, and the results of the behavioral intention analysis found them to be the most and least likely to report wanting a change in lifestyles, respectively. Thus, the older single males in this investigation were unsatisfied with being single, they had a fairly low overall expectancy-value score for the self, and they reported an intention to act on their lack of satisfaction with singlehood by marrying. At the other extreme, older married males reported being very satisfied with their lifestyles, they had a high overall expectancy-value score for the self, and they reported the highest likelihood of remaining in their current situation.

It was also expected that older single and older married females would have differed significantly on this issue, with the singles reporting an intention to remain and the marrieds an intention to change. However, it was seen that older females did not differ significantly. They were neither more or less likely to change lifestyles than any other group. This will be considered further in Chapter IV.

## CHAPTER IV DISCUSSION

### Major Findings

The experimental hypotheses tested in this investigation were derived mainly from the small body of literature existing on the subject of singlehood. More importantly, they were tested within the theoretical framework of expectancy-value. The results reported here strongly supported the hypotheses. These were welcome findings, not only because of the importance of replication in any science, but also because singlehood as an issue for study has needed a theoretical foundation on which to build.

To restate and summarize the major findings, profiles of the average individual in each experimental group will be presented. These profiles will be comprised of the information gathered through hypothesis-testing. Explanations of the phenomena will also be put forth. It should be noted again that the findings summarized in the following profiles are limited in generalizability mainly to educated, urban, Caucasian, American single and married individuals.

Single Males, 28- to 32-Years of Age

One of the most tantalizing profiles to emerge in this investigation was that of the 28- to 32-year-old single male. Contrary to the familiar stereotype of the "gay Lothario," the picture which emerged was far from blissful. It was, in fact, hypothesized that these single males would be the least satisfied with their lifestyles and this hypothesis was convincingly supported by a lifestyle X sex X age interaction on self satisfaction.

It was also hypothesized that the less satisfied a group, the more highly that group would evaluate the alternative lifestyle. Further, an unsatisfied group was predicted to be more likely to report a behavioral intention to change lifestyles than a satisfied group. Therefore, because the older single males were the least satisfied group, they were expected to rate marriage more favorably than singlehood and report a greater likelihood of marrying. Again, the hypotheses were supported. An analysis of difference scores between the expectancy-value scores for a respondents' own lifestyle and its alternative demonstrated that the older single males believed marriage would better deliver that which an individual values in life. The greater desire to change lifestyles was supported by a significant lifestyle X sex X age interaction. Of all the groups, older single males reported the least likelihood of remaining in their current lifestyles in the next two years.



Thus, these single males, 28- to 32-years of age were the least satisfied with being single of all the single groups, they evaluated marriage more favorably than singlehood, and expressed a stronger intention to change lifestyles (i.e., marry) than other groups.

But it is doubtful that this is a realistic expectation for a number of reasons. First of all, the results of the ANOVAs on the individual values and expectancies of the 15 parameters demonstrated that older single males did not value key features characteristic of marriage. They placed little value on long-term relationships, dependence on another person, having a regular sexual partner, and parenting children. Interestingly, they also did not value close friendships and personal growth very highly. It is possible that these men have devoted their energies to career and professional growth instead and so, have shut themselves out of the marriage market. Further, their desirability would be limited in the eyes of many potential spouses due to the lack of value these single men place on close friendships. The strong implication is that the average man in this group would be unlikely to perceive a wife as a friend.

In addition to the individual factors making the prospects for a suitable marriage less likely for 28- to 32-year-old single males, certain external factors make the pool of candidates even smaller. In particular, the age

cohorts of these men are among the most satisfied of individuals (see profile of single females, 28- to 32-years of age), and are far less likely to want to marry. Thus, single women of the same age may be less available than the men think. And while it is traditionally less offensive for a man to marry out of his age group (e.g., a much younger woman), than vice versa, men in their early thirties would be more subject to criticism for doing so. For them, younger spouses would be in their late teens or early twenties and more likely to be considered girls than women. Taboos against "robbing the cradle" still exist.

These men are faced with an unpleasant dilemma for they must decide which is the more socially unacceptable--marriage out of their age group or singlehood itself. Given that they devalue certain important qualities of marriage, why do they feel pushed towards it? The answer, most likely, is that they are "pushed." As described in Chapter I there are pushes and pulls both toward and away from singlehood and marriage (Stein, 1975). In the case of older single men, pushes from the mass media, from cultural expectations, and socialization no doubt combine to make singlehood a most unsatisfactory experience.

This investigation demonstrated that there is still a stigma attached to being single and this may be the reason for the differences in satisfaction. As hypothesized, all the single respondents reported that singles as a group were

less satisfied than marrieds. The reason for this may be their recognition that singlehood is not on equal footing with marriage. The ANOVAs on the social acceptance parameter did, in fact, reveal that both groups expected singles to be less socially accepted.

Given that at this time in their lives good marriages may be infeasible, it is truly a pity that 28- to 32-year-old single males are not happier being single. If society more enthusiastically embraced singlehood as a lifestyle-of-choice, perhaps these men would find greater satisfaction in it.

#### Married Males, 28- to 32-Years of Age

This study indicated that there is little new to add to what is known about older married males in general. As hypothesized, they were the most satisfied of all experimental groups. They also had high expectancy-value scores and were the group least likely to want to change lifestyles. This was not surprising as they evaluated singlehood significantly less favorably than marriage.

Men have every reason to view marriage as the lifestyle-of-choice. It is not only the more socially acceptable lifestyle, but in it, men are able to exercise greater freedoms than are women. Because our society exhorts males to be the family breadwinners, they have an accepted excuse to leave home at least five days a week for eight hours, are

more likely than working wives to be able to take advantage of career opportunities even when changes in location are required, and unless they choose, do not face the combined pressure of working "at work" and at home (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1976).

These married males valued and experienced features characteristic of marriage. In Stein's push/pull terminology it would seem that older married males differ from their single brethren in that they are pulled by marriage. Their positive attitudes toward long-term relationships and having children, friendships and personal growth, probably made them attractive candidates as husbands.

#### Single Females, 28- to 32-Years of Age

It was hypothesized that 28- to 32-year-old single females would be the most satisfied of all single groups. This hypothesis was strongly supported by lifestyle X sex X age interactions of self satisfaction and self expectancy-value. Only older married men were more satisfied, and that only slightly, and these women had the highest expectancy-value outcomes of all.

The hypotheses which followed being highly satisfied were the expectations that the alternative lifestyle, marriage, would be evaluated significantly less favorably, and the reported intention to change lifestyles would be small.

Single women, 28- to 32-years of age did, in fact, evaluate marriage less favorably than singlehood. This was revealed by the difference scores analysis described before. Of all the groups, the largest difference between evaluations of the lifestyles occurred for these women.

Unlike single men the same age, these single women seemed more willing to appreciate the benefits of singlehood. They reported the highest expectancies for personal independence, privacy, and geographic mobility, and placed the highest values on close friendships and personal growth of any group. In addition, they valued self-sufficiency and career opportunities. These are all pulls toward singlehood. Push factors such as obstacles to personal growth, boredom, isolation, and limitations on mobility, had little to nothing to do with the choice of these women to be single.

As mentioned in Chapter III, despite the fact that 28- to 32-year-old single females were highly satisfied with being single, they were no more likely than married women the same age (a far less satisfied group, see below) to report an intention to remain in their current lifestyles. It was expected that the difference between these two groups should have been more extreme given the significant difference in their reported satisfaction. While none of the groups, save perhaps 28- to 32-year-old single males, reported a major intention to change lifestyles within the next two years it is worth speculating on the slight chance that older single women gave themselves to marry.



One explanation is derived from social exchange theory (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). The theory posits that the decision to enter or leave any relationship will involve a cost/benefit analysis. The simplest case occurs, for instance, when an individual perceives that what she or he contributes to a relationship is greater than what she or he receives in return. The costs would then exceed the benefits, and the theory predicts the person would be likely to withdraw from the relationship. However circumstances are not always that straightforward. Sometimes an individual will stay in a costly relationship if she or he perceives no better alternative. Thibaut and Kelley would say this individual has a low comparison level for alternatives. Suppose Jane was stranded on an island with her husband Tom, and his friends, Dick and Harry. If Dick and Harry were terrible human beings, even if she was unhappy with Tom, Jane would probably stay with her husband. Dick and Harry would be poor alternatives and relationships with either would not increase her benefits.

In the case of 28- to 32-year-old single women, it can be seen that they are already deriving tremendous rewards from being single. For them to increase their benefits further, an alternative even better than what is already quite good would have to materialize. A single woman in this group will probably be flexible enough not to rule out the possibility of marriage if she meets a man who proves to be

a reward-increasing alternative. Essentially the same principle is operating in this case as in the example of Jane. The difference is that with single women their comparison level for alternatives may be keeping them from entering, as opposed to, leaving relationships. Marrying would be costly unless the elusive "perfect" suitor who would more than compensate for decreased privacy and personal independence came along.

#### Married Females, 28- to 32-Years of Age

As hypothesized, 28- to 32-year-old married females were the least satisfied of the married groups. The lifestyle X sex X age interaction on self satisfaction revealed that only single males the same age were more unsatisfied. These married women also had much lower self expectancy-value outcomes than the other married groups. Only young singles achieved lower scores.

Because the 28- to 32-year-old married females were an unsatisfied group, it was predicted that they would rate the alternative lifestyle more favorably and would report a significant intention to change lifestyles. Neither of these predictions was borne out to any great extent.

In the first instance, the difference scores analysis demonstrated that the difference between older married females' evaluations of marriage and singlehood were not significantly different even though the expectancy-value

score for singlehood was higher. The difference, however, was only significant at the  $p=.10$  level.

Regarding the behavioral intention to change lifestyles, even though these married women reported a greater likelihood of doing so than any other married group, they are no more likely to change lifestyles than single women the same age. Again, exchange theory can be brought to bear on the problem. Divorce, and all that it entails, is a costly venture. Many of these women, though unsatisfied with marriage, have low comparison levels for alternatives. That is, they may perceive the potential for loneliness, raising children alone, financial insecurity, and the combined stigma of singlehood and divorce as far more costly than remaining in the marriage.

Compared to married males, 28- to 32-years of age, the married females in this study seemed less pulled by marriage. Push factors such as financial security, loneliness, and infeasible alternatives explain their continuation of marriage much better.

#### Young Married Females and Males

Because the differences between the sexes in each young group were few, their profiles will be combined.

There were no specific hypotheses concerning young marrieds. Like their single age cohorts they were not expected to report extremes of satisfaction, although it was

assumed that they would be more satisfied than young singles. In particular, the ANCOVA on self expectancy-value showed this to be the case. An inspection of the means in Table 3.4 reveals that young marrieds are currently experiencing greater accord between their values and expectancies than are young singles.

Their evaluations of singlehood were not significantly different than their evaluations of their own lifestyle. Possibly, they have not been married long enough to perceive many differences. Also, because they are younger, many may not yet have children. The presence of children is certainly a strong point of departure from the single lifestyle, although in ten to twenty years artificial insemination by donor and single parent adoptions may lessen that distinction.

Finally, because they were satisfied, it was expected that they would not state a major intention to change lifestyles and they did not. The satisfaction reported by young married men and women indicates that for the present they are pulled by marriage.

#### Young Single Females and Males

As mentioned before, the younger singles in this investigation gave every indication that they intend to marry. They were only moderately satisfied with singlehood, had the lowest expectancy-value outcomes of all the

experimental groups, and reported being significantly less likely than young marrieds to remain in their current lifestyles.

The individual ANOVAs on the expectancies and values of the 15 parameters provided even more compelling evidence that these young singles have every intention of marrying. They valued long-term relationships, having a regular sexual partner, and parenting children more than did older singles. They valued being dependent on another far more than did older singles and even more than did marrieds. In addition, they reported these features as characterizing marriage, so it is logical that they should wish to marry to improve their expectancy-value outcomes.

Most of the young singles probably will marry and of those that do, approximately 50% will divorce, if the statistics remain constant. A few will find in the next five to six years that their careers will have assumed preeminence in their lives and they will not have married either because the best opportunity will have failed to present itself or will have been infeasible. The results of this investigation indicate that the young men who will not have married by their early thirties will be very unsatisfied with their singlehood. More than a decade has passed since the last major research efforts on the health and well-being of singles were published (Knapfer, Clark, & Room, 1966; Baker, 1968; Radloff, 1975; Srole et al., 1962).



Those studies were unanimous in concluding that long-term singlehood was not a viable lifestyle for men. In 1984 the situation has not changed appreciably. Unless and until children are brought up to believe that singlehood and marriage are both acceptable adult lifestyle options, being single will continue to present a problem for many of the individuals who are single, particularly those who do not wish to be. Wide acceptance of singlehood could encourage changes in socialization such that boys would be urged to make friends as girls do and have those friends as support groups. Adams (1976) and Shahan (1981) have described single friends as forming "extended families," the members of which feel free to call on each other at any time. The low value ( $M=1.07$ ) 28- to 32-year-old single men in this study placed on close friendships is evidence that they are less likely to be part of "extended families" of friends. Thus, they haven't that defense against loneliness and isolation.

This investigation indicates that women who reach the age of 30 without having married will have adjusted very well to long-term singlehood. The women in this study truly fit Stein's (1975) description of singles who did not actively select to marry and for whom singlehood is a positive lifestyle choice.

The Success of the Expectancy-Value Model at Predicting Lifestyle Choice

As reported in Chapter III, the expectancy-value model predicted lifestyle choice when mediated by attitude. Self satisfaction and stated behavioral intention to remain in the current lifestyle correlated significantly as did self satisfaction and self expectancy-value. Thus, expectancy-value accurately predicted satisfaction with respondents' lifestyles, satisfaction predicted behavioral intention, and the theory was supported.

The most important point to reiterate, however, is that knowledge of the respondents' attitudes toward the lifestyles alternative to their own was essential in understanding their present situations. For instance, if singles' attitudes toward marriage had not been assessed we would know for certain only that the older males found singlehood unsatisfying and the older females found it satisfying. We would not know that both groups actually devalued certain features characteristic of marriage. We would also not know for certain that the older married women devalued singlehood enough to avoid it even if that meant remaining in unsatisfactory situations.

Understanding attitudes toward the alternative lifestyle enables us to best determine the pushes and pulls influencing an individual's current situation and future plans. In the cases where expectancy-value outcomes do not perfectly predict behavioral intention, social exchange

theory provides explanations based on an individual's comparison level for alternatives.

Overall, this investigation indicated that expectancy-value is indeed a useful framework for assessing the single lifestyle. In practical instances knowing a person's level of satisfaction with their lifestyle will be as important, if not moreso, than knowing if they intend to change it if they are unhappy. It has already been seen that in some cases changing lifestyles may not even be feasible. If we know that a single person is unsatisfied it may be possible to improve aspects of his or her singlehood. In a clinical setting, for example, an instrument based on the parameters used in this investigation might be utilized to determine the gaps between what a person values and experiences. If a virtually single individual is depressed and seeks out a therapist, the therapist may learn that the client feels unable to take care of him or herself (i.e., has a low expectancy for self-sufficiency). Another single person may value parenting children, but not long-term relationships, and yet another may feel isolated. These are problems for which there are answers that need not include marrying.

There may be other factors relevant to lifestyle choice that the literature and the focus group interviews conducted prior to constructing the survey instrument have failed to pinpoint. However, the discriminant analysis described in Chapter III demonstrated that the 15 parameters used in this

study were successful classifiers of respondents' intention to remain in their current lifestyles. As a check, the same analysis was done for self satisfaction and the parameters also led to correct classification of that variable. A logical follow-up investigation to determine the predictive power of the parameters would be a longitudinal assessment. If the single and married individuals in the study actually behaved according to their expressed intention to marry or divorce, there would be even stronger support for the citing of these characteristics as important determinants of lifestyle choice.

In summary, then, a number of ideas about singlehood that have been asserted elsewhere were tested in this initiative within a sound theoretical context. That context proved useful in assessing the single lifestyle. It is hoped that the knowledge gained in this investigation will advance singlehood as a topic for study and that increased understanding of singlehood will help to create an ambience whereby it may become a more socially acceptable lifestyle.

APPENDIX A  
THE SURVEY PROTOCOL



I would like you to read the following list of lifestyle characteristics. I am going to ask you whether you think these features would be desirable or undesirable to you.

You have seven choices for your responses: Very Desirable, Desirable, Slightly Desirable, Neither Desirable Nor Undesirable, Slightly Undesirable, Undesirable, and Very Undesirable. For example, "being healthy" is a feature most people value. An appropriate rating, therefore, would be Very Desirable, Desirable, or Slightly Desirable. Please rate the items the way you honestly feel about whether you think the following are desirable or undesirable values for you. Check one answer for each feature.

- +3 Very Desirable
  - +2 Desirable
  - +1 Slightly Desirable
  - 0 Neither Desirable Nor Undesirable
  - 1 Slightly Undesirable
  - 2 Undesirable
  - 3 Very Undesirable
- (1) Being self-sufficient. (For example, being able to cook, do minor repairs.)
  - (2) Being geographically mobile.
  - (3) Privacy. (For example, having maximal control over how often your space is entered and by whom.)
  - (4) Having a regular sexual partner.
  - (5) Being able to take advantage of career opportunities.
  - (6) Being financially secure.
  - (7) Having a life that will maximize your personal growth.
  - (8) Making a long-term commitment to a relationship.
  - (9) Having close, supportive friendships.
  - (10) Being dependent on another person.
  - (11) Having a choice of sexual partners.
  - (12) Feeling socially accepted by society.
  - (13) Not being bored. (For example, having a stimulating life and engaging in stimulating activities.)
  - (14) Having the freedom to be personally independent. (For example, to act without compromising.)
  - (15) Parenting children.

I would now like you to rate the list of lifestyle characteristics as to the extent to which they actually characterize or will characterize your present lifestyle.

Again, you have seven choices for your responses. This time they range from very likely to very unlikely.

- +3 Very Likely
- +2 Likely
- +1 Slightly Likely
- 0 Neither Likely Nor Unlikely

- 1 Slightly Unlikely
- 2 Unlikely
- 3 Very Unlikely

- (1) Being self-sufficient. (For example, being able to cook, do minor repairs.)
- (2) Being geographically mobile.
- (3) Privacy. (For example, having maximal control over how often your space is entered and by whom.)
- (4) Having a regular sexual partner.
- (5) Being able to take advantage of career opportunities.
- (6) Being financially secure.
- (7) Having a life that will maximize your personal growth.
- (8) Making a long-term commitment to a relationship.
- (9) Having close, supportive friendships.
- (10) Being dependent on another person.
- (11) Having a choice of sexual partners.
- (12) Feeling socially accepted by society.
- (13) Not being bored. (For example, having a stimulating life and engaging in stimulating activities.)
- (14) Having the freedom to be personally independent. (For example, to act without compromising.)
- (15) Parenting children.

You are presently single/married. I would like to know now what you believe single/married people value. Thus, you will be rating the characteristics using the very desirable to very undesirable scale again. Please rate the items according to what you honestly believe single/married people value.

- +3 Very Desirable
- +2 Desirable
- +1 Slightly Desirable
- 0 Neither Desirable Nor Undesirable
- 1 Slightly Undesirable
- 2 Undesirable
- 3 Very Undesirable

- (1) Being self-sufficient. (For example, being able to cook, do minor repairs.)
- (2) Being geographically mobile.
- (3) Privacy. (For example, having maximal control over how often your space is entered and by whom.)
- (4) Having a regular sexual partner.
- (5) Being able to take advantage of career opportunities.
- (6) Being financially secure.
- (7) Having a life that will maximize your personal growth.
- (8) Making a long-term commitment to a relationship.
- (9) Having close, supportive friendships.
- (10) Being dependent on another person.
- (11) Having a choice of sexual partners.
- (12) Feeling socially accepted by society.

- (13) Not being bored. (For example, having a stimulating life and engaging in stimulating activities.)
- (14) Having the freedom to be personally independent. (For example, to act without compromising.)
- (15) Parenting children.

Now I would like you to rate the characteristics as to the extent to which you believe they actually characterize the lifestyles of single/married people.

- +3 Very Likely
- +2 Likely
- +1 Slightly Likely
- 0 Neither Likely Nor Unlikely
- 1 Slightly Unlikely
- 2 Unlikely
- 3 Very Unlikely

- (1) Being self-sufficient. (For example, being able to cook, do minor repairs.)
- (2) Being geographically mobile.
- (3) Privacy. (For example, having maximal control over how often your space is entered and by whom.)
- (4) Having a regular sexual partner.
- (5) Being able to take advantage of career opportunities.
- (6) Being financially secure.
- (7) Having a life that will maximize your personal growth.
- (8) Making a long-term commitment to a relationship.
- (9) Having close, supportive friendships.
- (10) Being dependent on another person.
- (11) Having a choice of sexual partners.
- (12) Feeling socially accepted by society.
- (13) Not being bored. (For example, having a stimulating life and engaging in stimulating activities.)
- (14) Having the freedom to be personally independent. (For example, to act without compromising.)
- (15) Parenting children.

NOW PLEASE ANSWER THESE QUESTIONS.

I would like to know your overall evaluation of your lifestyle. It could be very satisfactory, meaning you are quite pleased with it, or it could be very unsatisfactory, meaning you have difficulties with it, or it could be somewhere in between. How satisfactory is your current lifestyle?

Very Satisfactory 1.2.3.4.5.6.7 Very Unsatisfactory

I would also like to know your overall evaluation of singlehood/marriage. How do you think most

single/married people find it? How satisfactory  
is singlehood/marriage?

Very Satisfactory 1.2.3.4.5.6.7 Very Unsatisfactory

I have asked you how you feel about your lifestyle and the other major alternative to your lifestyle. It is also important to ask you how likely you think it is that you will remain in your current lifestyle in the next 2 years.

Very Likely 1.2.3.4.5.6.7 Very Unlikely

#### DEMOGRAPHICS

(1) How old are you?

(2) What was the last grade in school that you actually completed? (Circle the number for that grade):

No Schooling 0  
Elementary 1 2 3 4 5  
Middle School 6 7 8  
High School 9 10 11 12  
College 13 14 15 16  
Graduate/Professional 17 18 19 20  
Years in Vocational Training 1 2 3 4

(3) Please look at the following list and check the space next to what you think will be your total income during 1984. Be sure you include wages, income from business or farm, interest, dividends, social security, welfare, and any other money received by you.

-- No income  
-- \$1 - 2,499  
-- \$2,500 - \$4,999  
-- \$5,000 - \$7,499  
-- \$7,500 - \$9,999  
-- \$10,000 - \$14,999  
-- \$15,000 - \$19,999  
-- \$20,000 - \$29,999  
-- \$30,000 - \$39,999  
-- \$40,000 and over

(4) What is your race?

-- Caucasian  
-- Black  
-- Hispanic  
-- Oriental  
-- Other

Thank you very much!

Figure A.1: Example of the Protocol



APPENDIX B  
TABLES OF MEANS FOR TWO- AND THREE-WAY  
INTERACTIONS

TABLE B.1

Value for the self of self-sufficiency as a function of sex,  
age, and lifestyle

---

		Lifestyle	
Sex	Age	Single	Married
Male			
	23-27	2.75	2.54
	28-32	2.10	2.58
Female			
	23-27	2.64	2.68
	28-32	2.61	2.59

---

TABLE B.2

Expectancy for the self of geographic mobility as a function  
of sex, age, and lifestyle

---

		Lifestyle	
Sex	Age	Single	Married
Male			
	23-27	1.29	-0.14
	28-32	0.40	0.67
Female			
	23-27	1.03	0.00
	28-32	1.30	-0.45

---

TABLE B.3

Value for the alternative of geographic mobility as a  
function of age and lifestyle

---

Age	Lifestyle	
	Single	Married
23-27	0.44	2.49
28-32	-0.42	2.32

---

TABLE B.4

Expectancy for the self of privacy as a function of sex,  
age, and lifestyle

---

		Lifestyle	
Sex	Age	Single	Married
Male			
	23-27	1.54	0.32
	28-32	1.87	1.04
Female			
	23-27	1.48	0.68
	28-32	2.39	-0.27

---

TABLE B.5

Expectancy for the alternative of privacy as a function of  
age and lifestyle

---

Age	Lifestyle	
	Single	Married
23-27	-0.06	2.36
28-32	-1.28	2.25

---

TABLE B.6

Value for the self of regular sexual partner as a function  
of sex, age, and lifestyle

---

		Lifestyle	
Sex	Age	Single	Married
Male			
	23-27	2.29	2.59
	28-32	1.47	2.67
Female			
	23-27	1.48	2.52
	28-32	1.26	2.09

---

TABLE B.7

Value for the alternative of having a regular sexual partner  
as a function of sex, age, and lifestyle

---

		Lifestyle	
Sex	Age	Single	Married
Male			
	23-27	2.62	-0.04
	28-32	2.73	1.67
Female			
	23-27	2.57	1.08
	28-32	2.61	1.04

---

TABLE B.8

Expectancy for the alternative of having a regular sexual  
partner as a function of sex, age, and lifestyle

---

		Lifestyle	
Sex	Age	Single	Married
Male			
	23-27	2.08	-0.64
	28-32	2.83	0.92
Female			
	23-27	2.48	0.36
	28-32	2.87	-0.04

---

TABLE B.9

Value for the self of career opportunities as a function of  
sex and lifestyle

---

Sex	Lifestyle	
	Single	Married
Male	2.28	2.38
Female	2.70	2.28

---

TABLE B.10

Expectancy for the self of career opportunities as a  
function of sex, age, and lifestyle

---

		Lifestyle	
Sex	Age	Single	Married
Male			
	23-27	1.62	1.41
	28-32	1.47	2.08
Female			
	23-27	1.39	0.84
	28-32	2.00	0.54

---



TABLE B.11

Expectancy for the alternative of career opportunities as a function of age and lifestyle

---

Age	Lifestyle	
	Single	Married
23-27	0.81	1.70
28-32	0.09	1.66

---

TABLE B.12

Expectancy for the self of financial security as a function of age and lifestyle

---

Age	Lifestyle	
	Single	Married
23-27	0.67	1.76
28-32	1.84	1.36

---

TABLE B.13

Value for the self of personal growth as a function of sex,  
age, and lifestyle

---

		Lifestyle	
Sex	Age	Single	Married
Male			
	23-27	2.54	2.18
	28-32	1.03	2.33
Female			
	23-27	2.79	2.64
	28-32	2.83	2.68

---

TABLE B.14

Expectancy for the alternative of personal growth as a  
function of sex and lifestyle

---

		Lifestyle	
Sex		Single	Married
Male		0.78	0.82
Female		0.82	1.69

---

TABLE B.15

Value for the self of long-term relationships as a function  
of age and lifestyle

---

Age	Lifestyle	
	Single	Married
23-27	1.74	2.54
28-32	0.84	2.44

---

TABLE B.16

Value for the alternative of long-term relationships as a  
function of sex, age, and lifestyle

---

		Lifestyle	
Sex	Age	Single	Married
Male			
	23-27	2.67	-0.82
	28-32	2.83	0.54
Female			
	23-27	2.88	0.32
	28-32	2.91	0.00

---

TABLE B.17

Expectancy for the alternative of close friendships as a  
function of sex and lifestyle

---

Sex	Lifestyle	
	Single	Married
Male	1.72	2.03
Female	1.17	2.38

---

TABLE B.18

Value for the self of close friendships as a function of  
sex, age, and lifestyle

---

		Lifestyle	
Sex	Age	Single	Married
Male			
	23-27	2.67	2.36
	28-32	1.07	2.42
Female			
	23-27	2.73	2.68
	28-32	2.91	2.82

---

TABLE B.19

Value for the self of being dependent on another as a  
function of age and lifestyle

---

Age	Lifestyle	
	Single	Married
23-27	-0.82	-1.11
28-32	-1.85	-1.02

---

TABLE B.20

Expectancy for the self of being dependent on another as a  
function of age and lifestyle

---

Age	Lifestyle	
	Single	Married
23-27	-0.13	0.68
28-32	-1.59	1.10

---

TABLE B.21

Value for the self of a choice of sexual partners as a  
function of age and lifestyle

---

Age	Lifestyle	
	Single	Married
23-27	0.91	-1.06
28-32	-0.01	0.11

---



TABLE B.22

Expectancy for the alternative of social acceptance as a  
function of sex, age, and lifestyle

---

		Lifestyle	
Sex	Age	Single	Married
Male			
	23-27	1.42	-0.04
	28-32	2.57	1.29
Female			
	23-27	1.91	1.44
	28-32	2.69	1.27

---

TABLE B.23

Expectancy for the self of personal independence as a  
function of sex, age, and lifestyle

---

		Lifestyle	
Sex	Age	Single	Married
Male			
	23-27	1.29	-0.41
	28-32	1.67	0.79
Female			
	23-27	0.67	0.28
	28-32	2.48	-0.32

---

TABLE B.24

Value for the self of parenting children as a function of  
age and lifestyle

---

Age	Lifestyle	
	Single	Married
23-27	1.41	1.58
28-32	0.29	1.90

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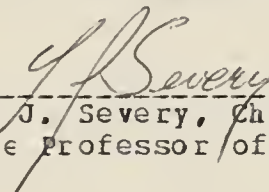


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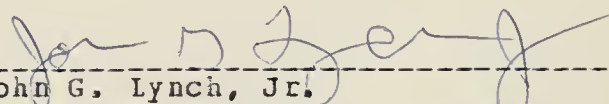
## BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Jill Irene Scheppler was born in Des Moines, Iowa, on October 9, 1957. She grew up in Ankeny, Iowa, where she graduated from high school in 1975. Jill received an Associate of Arts degree in liberal arts and sciences from Des Moines Area Community College in 1977 and a Bachelor of Science degree with distinction in psychology from Iowa State University in 1979. While at the University of Florida she received a Master of Science degree in psychology in 1981 and expects to receive a Doctor of Philosophy degree in psychology in 1984. Jill is blissfully single and wants to make a lot of money.

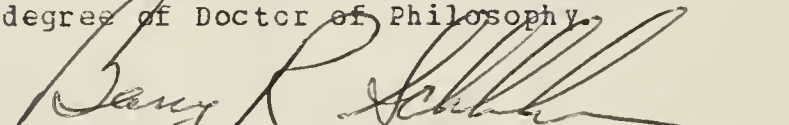
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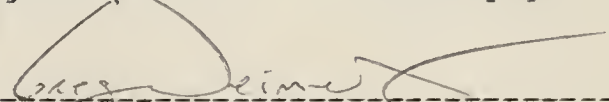
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Associate Professor of Marketing

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Barry R. Schlenker  
Professor of Psychology

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This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Department of Psychology in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences and to the Graduate School, and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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